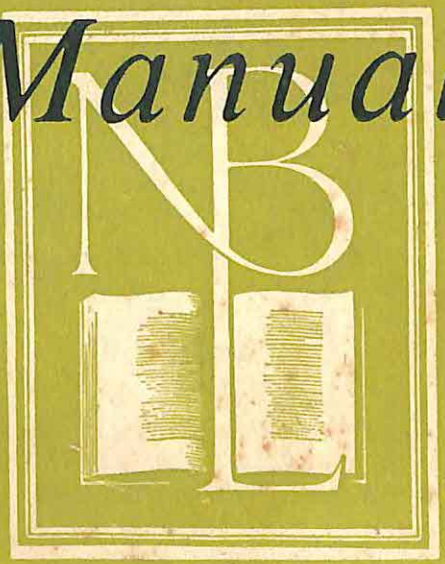
School Libraries

1916

A Short Manual



C · A · STOTT

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RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN education have led to a general recognition of the importance of libraries in schools, and the Ministry of Education has given instructions that a library room is to be an essential part of the equipment of all secondary schools to be built henceforth.

This book, which is written by the Librarian of Aldenham School and Honorary Secretary of the School Library Association, is a comprehensive manual of school librarianship for the guidance of those wishing to administer a school library on modern lines. It deals with the relation of the library to all the activities of the school, the planning, furnishing and equipment of libraries, administration, book selection, ordering and accessioning, classification, cataloguing, stocktaking, binding, the handling of papers and periodicals, finance, and the training of staff and pupils in the full use of the library.

It is a book that will prove indispensable to librarians in every type of school, and to all members of Education Authorities who are concerned with the effective use of the printed word.

In this edition the text has been left unaltered but the bibliography has been brought up to date; and a new appendix calls attention to new developments in school library theory and practice since the first edition was published.

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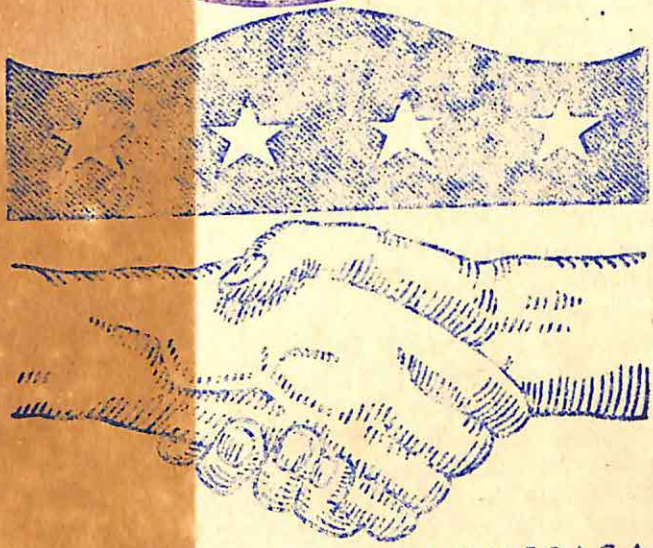
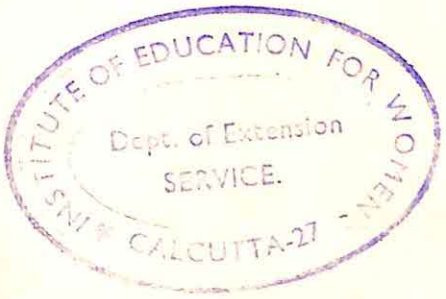


UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

A SHORT MANUAL



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By courtesy of the Headmaster, H. Birch Esq., and of the West Riding of Yorkshire Education Committee.

The library of Colley Secondary School, Sheffield. The school was designed by Basil Spence, Esq., O.B.E., A.R.A., A.R.S.A., F.R.I.B.A., and was opened in 1954.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

A SHORT MANUAL

C. A. STOTT, M.B.E.

Librarian & Sixth Form Master
Aldenham School

Honorary Secretary
School Library Association

THE ALL INDIA COUNCIL
4/19, Asaf Ali Road,
NEW DELHI
FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

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CONTENTS

		Page
Preface		7
Foreword to Second Edition (1955)		9
Chapter		
1	The Central Library as a Unit Departmental and Other Libraries	11
2	Planning the School Library Furniture and Fittings	14
3	Administration and Routine *Book Selection · Ordering and Accessioning · Classification · Cataloguing · Charging Systems · Stocktaking · Binding · Papers and Periodicals · Miscellaneous*	25
4	Finance	92
5	The Uses of the Library *Library Training · The Library out of School*	96
6	The Librarian and his Work	115
7	Staff and Pupils	119
8	The School Library and the Public Library	121
Postscript to the Beginner		127
Appendixes		
	1 The School Library Association	129
	2 Glossary	131
	3 A Select List of Books	134
	4 Revisions to Text, 1955	140
Index		146

PREFACE

THIS IS AN ELEMENTARY MANUAL of school librarianship; and it has been planned as an attempt to help the school librarian who is beginning the work of administering a school library on modern lines. It has no pretension to do what the advanced works on various aspects of librarianship do; but it does seek to state the chief problems which the school librarian meets, and to make suggestions for dealing with them.

Although administration and routine take up the larger part of the book, in actual fact the chapter on the educational uses of the library (Chapter 5) is the foundation on which rests all that is said on routine, and it might well have been placed first. Throughout, administration, routine, finance are regarded as subordinate to *use*; the angle of approach is: 'These are the uses to which we wish to put the library: what does this mean in terms of planning, equipment, book-selection, classification, and so on—and not least of finance?'

This is not the place to anticipate that chapter; but we do appeal to all who have at heart the interests of education, particularly in times such as the present, to ponder over the contribution which a good school library has to make to the work of the teacher and of the school (and that over a far wider area than the range of school subjects), in inspiring interests, in giving opportunities to enrich the subject matter of teaching and to encourage the use of judgment and initiative, and above all to prepare the way gradually for the time when the child will be thrown on his own resources, as he must be on leaving school. If we may put the matter more formally, we may summarize the educational uses of the school library as (1) to provide material to supplement and enrich work done in subjects taught in the class-room; (2) to provide material to arouse and satisfy the great variety of personal

interests a child may develop outside the scope of the curriculum, whether these interests are intellectual, imaginative or practical; (3) to make possible training in the use of books and of a library as sources of information, together with practice in their use; (4) to furnish opportunities for children (often children to whom other school responsibilities do not readily come) to exercise responsibilities of various kinds; and (5) to introduce all children to the public library system.

The main aims of the school librarian are then: (1) to make available as fully as possible to his fellow-teachers and pupils the resources which the library possesses; and (2) to organize, either through himself or through others, instruction and practice in its use. The ultimate object in either case is to teach the user to help himself; in other words, to make the effective use of the library as little dependent as possible on the personal presence of the librarian. By his *external organization* of the library (especially through classification and cataloguing) he provides a general system of guidance for the reader; while by *instruction in the use of books* he seeks to teach the pupil how to make effective use of this guidance. By these means the pupil is provided with a key to the use of books for very many purposes, and with some practice in using it.

There is little need to stress the value of such training and practice for the needs of adult life, whether for work or leisure. Books are still the most important single medium by which experience and knowledge is communicated. But it is perhaps not even yet widely enough realized that the effective use of books is something which can, and should, be taught; that the proper time for this teaching is, generally speaking, the age of formal education; and that the proper place for this teaching is the school. It is impossible to tackle this task adequately without a library.

In the pages which follow alternative methods of organization are sometimes outlined. Schools differ widely in their circumstances and character, and there is often no one method

which is universally applicable. We are still in the period of experiment. But the main principles of school librarianship, like those of librarianship in general, are simple and straightforward, nor have they any peculiar mystery; they may be applied successfully by any intelligent person who takes the trouble to master them. What is necessary is to choose a recognized and efficient technique and to apply it consistently. An improvised system is certain to lead to disaster.

The scope and size of this manual are consciously limited. It is felt that the best procedure is to deal with the general problems underlying each branch of routine; not to attempt any exhaustive treatment, but to take selected examples of their application in practice. It is here that the sections on classification and cataloguing have presented peculiar difficulties. It is quite impossible within the scope of a book of this size to deal with them fully; for in both cases, though the general principles may be stated with reasonable brevity, they call for a wide variety of illustrative material, and the discussion of their practical application, if it is to meet all the questions liable to be raised, involves a large mass of detailed guidance. What has here been attempted is a brief outline, with a very limited number of examples, designed to show how the principles are to be applied in general, but not in any particular case.

C. A. S.

FOREWORD TO SECOND EDITION (1955)

IN THIS EDITION the main text is left unaltered. Appendix 1 (The School Library Association) and Appendix 3 (A Select List of Books) have been recast; for a much fuller (and annotated) book list the reader is referred to the new (3rd) edition of *A List of Books on Librarianship and Library Technique* (S.L.A. 1954). A new Appendix—4—discusses very briefly

some of the more important developments since the first publication of the Manual; and opportunity is taken to correct or supplement the text in a number of places. An asterisk in the text calls attention to Appendix 4 at each of these points; and all the supplementary notes in this Appendix are numbered with the number of the page in the text to which each note refers.

1 THE CENTRAL LIBRARY AS A UNIT. DEPARTMENTAL AND OTHER LIBRARIES

IN SOME SCHOOLS the collection of books is housed in a single central library; in others it is dispersed in a number of smaller collections, usually subject libraries, or form or class libraries. As an important question of general policy arises here, it is worth while to state the arguments for and against dispersal.

CLASS LIBRARIES

THESE are most commonly found in junior or lower school class-rooms; they are not usually extensive, and consist of supplementary reading matter, available for reading in class, or for taking home. They have the obvious advantage of providing reading material on the spot. But they depend too much on the energy of the teacher concerned, and provision for their upkeep (both purchase of new books and rebinding or discarding of old) is likely to be haphazard. If they are provided, they should not be regarded as the equivalent of a library for the children who use them, and the children should be encouraged to use the central library. Class libraries should not be a charge on the central library funds.

SUBJECT LIBRARIES

THESE are either collections of books housed in subject rooms, as in a history room or a geography room; or they are virtually sixth-form departmental libraries. Libraries of this kind have often been built up through the enthusiasm of a good teacher who has realized the value of a collection of books in his teaching, and has often contributed his own books

to it. In some cases he has built up the collection because no central library existed. The arguments for the presence of a subject library in the teaching room are weighty; the books are always at hand when the subject is being taught, and the teacher can produce for inspection a book to which he refers; and, *so far as classes using that room are concerned*, the best possible use can be made of those books as they are required in the course of a lesson. Furthermore, work of the Project kind can be easily carried out in the classroom.

But there are serious considerations which point in the other direction and in favour of a single comprehensive library. They may be grouped under three heads:

1 Educational. (*a*) In modern teaching the boundaries of a 'subject' are continually being extended. There is a wide overlap between such subjects as history, geography, literature, art; we may say, in fact, that the more the teaching of a subject is alive, the more likely it is to overlap the area of other subjects. And this is educationally very desirable. It is hardly feasible to provide for this overlap except in a central library in which all subjects are represented. (*b*) Such a library, comprehensive in range, displays the range and extent of human experience and endeavour in a way impossible where the collection is dispersed. (*c*) Joint work undertaken by different sixth-form groups (see p. 111), and indeed any project or essay work involving overlapping subjects, is far more difficult to organize. (*d*) Many children, while specializing in one subject, have an interest in another, and to concentrate the books in which they are interested in a room to which they have little access debars them from their use.

2 Administrative. (*a*) Books housed in subject-rooms are far less likely to be available at all times, and to the school as a whole, than if they are housed centrally. When a subject library does exist, it is rarely possible for all the teaching even of that

subject to be given in the subject-room. (*b*) To secure consistency and continuity of administration, it is desirable that all the library resources of the school shall be under a single control.

3 Financial. A number of efficient independent subject libraries involve a great deal of unnecessary duplication and expense.

While, therefore, the argument for subject libraries is not to be underrated, the case for a single comprehensive library would seem far to outweigh it, if we regard the benefit of the school as a whole. Much can be done, however, by a sympathetic librarian to meet the needs of the subject teacher from the central library, especially by arranging for considerable block-loans for reasonably long periods.

Where it has been decided in principle that a single centralized collection is desirable, but it is not immediately possible to carry out the policy either through lack of a suitable room, or even perhaps out of regard for the feelings of a respected member of the staff, much can be done, nevertheless, to prepare for the time when the central library will be possible; the books may be catalogued and classified while still dispersed, and a unified catalogue established; a uniform system of issue and return of books may be instituted; and a periodical stocktaking of the entire collection carried out.

What has been said above is not meant to exclude the presence of important reference books in class-rooms, such as dictionaries and laboratory manuals; but these should be regarded as necessary teaching equipment and not as belonging to the library, or paid for out of its funds.

JUNIOR LIBRARIES

THERE is more reason for separating these from the main library, if it is desired to do so. A junior library can still represent the whole range of a child's interests, though within a

particular age-range. But there are always borderline cases; and provision should be made for dual use of both libraries by children to whom both have an appeal.

*

2 PLANNING THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

A LIBRARY BLOCK

FOR THE FULLEST and most effective use of a collection of books, especially in a large school, a group of rooms, or '*Library Block*' (like a 'Science Block'), is ideally required; and where a new school is being planned such a block should be considered.

A library block includes: (*a*) the *Main Library*, where the general collection of books is kept, and where most of the work in the library is done; (*b*) the *Librarian's Work-room*, well provided with cupboards, shelves and storage space, where he may put books awaiting preparation for use or books withdrawn for repair or rebinding; where work on which the librarian is engaged (e.g. cataloguing) may be left undisturbed, and where minor repairs may be carried out (see pp. 86, 121); (*c*) one or more *Conference Rooms*, to hold six to eight pupils, for the use of small groups, for joint work or discussion which cannot be carried on in the main library without some disturbance to other users (see p. 107); (*d*) in larger schools, a *Reading Room*, to accommodate additional readers when the main library is occupied by a class for library work, and, perhaps, to house the newspapers and periodicals which the library takes in; (*e*) a *Stockroom*, where books rarely needed may be stored.

But the complete set of rooms, desirable though it is, is not likely to be possible for many schools in the next few years. In what follows it will generally be assumed that a single library room only is available. But it cannot be too

strongly stressed that a room for the librarian's use, even if not actually opening off the library, is of the greatest value, and makes possible a considerable saving of his time.

THE LIBRARY · Position in Relation to the School Buildings

IF WE bear in mind the uses to which the library will be put, the chief needs will be (*a*) *easy accessibility* in view of its contact with all sides of school activity; (*b*) *quiet*, in view of its use; (*c*) *provision for expansion*; for libraries which seem in prospect amply adequate constantly prove, in the course of a few years, to be too small, and the method of prefabricated unit building brings planning for expansion within the range of practical politics; (*d*) *adequate natural lighting*. A room wider than twenty feet, for instance, should be lit from more than one side.

These requirements are not always attainable, and may even, as in (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), seem to conflict. Each problem can be decided only in relation to the school concerned. Positions worth exploring are the end of the central wing in buildings with an E plan, where the space required for a corridor may be incorporated in the library; or a first-floor situation above the school hall (though this will involve much ascent and descent). Where a school is planned in separate units or blocks—an administrative block, an arts and crafts block, and so on—a library block in a central position is attractive. With a detached block the problem of expansion is much more easy of solution.

THE LIBRARY ROOM · Size and Seating Capacity

AS A minimum there should be accommodation for a whole class, plus a number of individual readers. Provision must be made for a collection of books appropriate to the size and work of the school, and for the necessary equipment. Where there is no librarian's room, a small part of the room can be

set aside for his use. Where existing buildings are adapted for library use, dimensions are, of course, fixed, and it remains only to plan the most effective use of the space available. But where the library is still to be built, account should be taken of standards worked out by those familiar with the trend of modern school library practice. Here we give a summary of some recent estimates. It should also be borne in mind that although provision is made for the simultaneous seating of a class, plus some individual readers, there may be times when there is much greater pressure on space.

1 Carnegie Report (1936), pp. 13–15

A minimum provision of thirty-five to forty square feet per pupil is taken as standard, and the area recommended is based on the maximum number of pupils using the library at a single time. This gives the following minimum total areas:

Schools with 1-form entry:	1,050 sq. ft. (i.e. schools with about 160 pupils).
Schools with 2-form entry:	1,200 sq. ft. (a few more individual readers being allowed for).
Schools with 3-form entry:	1,200 sq. ft., with an additional reading room of 600 sq. ft. (to accommodate a second class).

Larger schools may need a second reading room.

2 School Library Association, **Draft Report on Libraries in Secondary Schools** (*1943*)

This Report adopts the general standards laid down in the Carnegie Report, with a slight increase in the size of the library for schools with a two-form and higher entry, to 1,250 square feet.

3 Fargo, **The Library in the School** (*1939*)

Here twenty-five square feet per pupil is taken as standard.

Schools enrolling up to 250 pupils: 875 sq. ft.
Schools enrolling 500 pupils: 1,250 sq. ft.
Schools enrolling over 500 pupils: 10 per cent of enrolment multiplied by 25 sq. ft.

Thus a school of 800 pupils would require a library of eighty multiplied by twenty-five, or 2,000 square feet.

4 American Library Association, **School Libraries Today and Tomorrow** (*summarized in* High Lights [*1945*])

Schools enrolling 200 pupils: largest class group plus 20, multiplied by 25 sq. ft.

Thus, if the largest class is thirty, the library should accommodate thirty plus twenty pupils, each allowed twenty-five square feet, or 1,250 square feet.

Schools enrolling 500 pupils: 1,875 sq. ft.
Schools enrolling 1,000 pupils: 2,500 sq. ft.

Note · The last two estimates are based on American practice, and in the larger schools take into account the existence of a separate study hall, where private study other than library work is carried on; less provision, therefore, need be made for readers in the library.

It will be seen that these estimates agree reasonably well, when the different American conditions are taken into account; and this is to be expected, as they are based on a consideration of the use which a library will have if it plays an active part in the life of the school. They may be taken as reasonable *minimum* standards. The area suggested in each case is that of the total floor space of the library, not merely of that occupied by seating.

Note on the Ministry of Education Building Regulations (1944)

These regulations prescribe for secondary schools a library room of not less than 600 square feet area; 960 square feet for a two-form entry school. It is true that a room of this size falls short of the standards quoted above, and free movement may be hampered; but it will be noted that the area named is the minimum permitted, and the Regulation is strongly to be welcomed in that it treats a library room as essential.

INTERNAL PLANNING

THE main considerations governing the internal planning of the library are:

1 Lighting. Every part of the library must be adequately lit with natural lighting. This means that a library wider than about twenty feet must be lit from more than one side. Seating should not be arranged so that any pupil has his back to the only source of light.

2 Supervision. The arrangement of shelving and other furniture should allow of effective supervision.

3 Space for Class-work. Ample space should be left free from shelving and other fixed furniture for the seating of a class for library instruction.

4 Furniture and Equipment. Sufficient space should be left for the shelving of the collection of books, whether in wall-cases, bays, or island cases, as well as for other necessary equipment, such as the charging desk or table, the catalogue cabinet and the vertical file.

ARRANGEMENT OF SHELVING

As shelving, once erected, is a fixture, it is important to plan its layout carefully.

1 Wall-cases are suitable for uninterrupted stretches of wall, but are of less use along a wall with windows. They are well placed along a wall backing on a corridor.

2 Alcoves are formed by double stacks projecting at right angles into the room, as in mediaeval libraries. Their advantages are: (*a*) they provide useful seclusion for private readers; and (*b*) they may add as much as one-third to the total shelving, and therefore to the accommodation for books, as compared with wall-cases. On the other hand they are less easily supervised; and unless the library is wide, they tend to encroach on needed open space. A possible compromise is to provide alcoves along the window side of the room, and wall-cases along the continuous wall opposite. Alcoves are not recommended on both sides unless the library is really wide and lit from both sides. (The plans given in the Carnegie Report, pp. 18 and 19, involve a seriously crowded central space.) Alcoves in which tables are provided for readers should be at least twelve feet from centre to centre, to allow for free consultation of the books on the shelves.

3 Island cases are not recommended unless there is a very generous provision of open space; and then they should not be of more than table height, when perhaps they could also serve as display cases.

FURNITURE AND FITTINGS

1 Shelving: Type and Dimensions

FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS, shelving should not be higher (measured to the top of the cornice) than six feet ten inches to seven feet. This means a height to the upper surface of the top shelf of about five feet ten inches. A total height of six feet six inches is recommended in the I.A.A.M. *Guide for School Librarians*; but the few extra inches make possible an extra shelf, and so add one-sixth to the book capacity of the

room. For primary schools the total height should be five feet or six feet. This allows for five or six shelves.

The standard dimensions for shelves are: length (measured from centre to centre of uprights)—three feet; depth (back to front)—eight inches; thickness—one inch. Each section of shelving between uprights constitutes a unit. A unit or 'bay' seven shelves high will accommodate about 200 books.

A vertical average of ten inches is allowed between shelves. Shelving should, if possible, be adjustable, as this permits some flexibility in the placing of books; for this purpose *Tonks' Adjustable Fitting* is satisfactory. The lowest shelf should be at least six inches from the floor level. This shelf may be tilted backwards so that books may be more easily seen.

A light cornice is satisfactory, two or three inches high. Opinions differ as to whether the woodwork of the base should be carried down to the floor, or whether a clearance should be left for cleaning. Some schools have extended the lowest shelf forwards, so as to form a ledge, serving as a low and informal seat, and as a step useful for consultation of the books on the top shelf. But of course the occupation of the ledge makes difficult the consultation of books on the lower shelves. Some schools have found a ledge at table-level convenient for consulting books, and for leaving them after use. But such a ledge reduces the flexibility gained by adjustable shelving. If one is provided, the shelves below it must be stepped forward.

Some shelving must be provided for *oversize* books (see p. 54). The total length of such shelving required may be estimated at about one-twelfth to one-tenth of the total length of shelving. Shelving for oversize books should be twelve inches deep, and from twelve to sixteen inches high. (Phaidon books are fourteen-and-a-half inches high.) Fixed uprights every few inches are helpful in supporting tall thin books. Large atlases are best laid in special horizontal partitions.

As open access is on every ground desirable, no doors or

grill should be put in front of the shelves. One glass-fronted case may be provided for special or valuable books.

Cupboards. If there is no librarian's work-room, some cupboard space should be available. This may often be conveniently placed to continue the line of the oversize shelving.

2 Table and Chairs: Pattern and Dimensions

It is desirable to avoid what may be called 'class-room atmosphere' and so desks, and other typical furniture of the class-room, should not be used. All school library manuals rightly lay stress on the creation of a friendly atmosphere, and ways of attaining it may be safely left to the taste and imagination of those concerned. Some easy chairs—provided there is plenty of floor space—give a pleasant suggestion of informality. Where the design of the windows permits, cushioned window seats are attractive.

Most of the furniture, however, must be of a more utilitarian kind. This is not inconsistent with beauty of design. Simplicity should above all be sought, and heaviness avoided, for it is an advantage to be able to change the arrangement of tables and chairs during a library period (see p. 102).

Tables need not be all of the same pattern. A combination of round and rectangular tables gives variety. Tables should not as a rule be larger than five feet by three feet six inches. A table of this size will seat six readers. Larger tables are less easy to move about. For secondary schools the normal adult height of thirty inches is satisfactory; for younger pupils most tables should be twenty-six inches high, with a few of twenty-four inches and twenty-eight inches.

Chairs should be simple and strong, and for comfort should have rounded backs and moulded seats. For use with tables thirty inches high, eighteen-inch chairs should be provided; for the lower sizes, chairs fourteen inches and sixteen inches respectively.

3 Other Furniture and Equipment

Librarian's Table or Charging Desk. A desk or table for the use of the librarian is necessary. This need not be of an elaborate kind, but it should be provided with drawers, in which charging trays (see p. 77) can be kept when not in use, and with a cupboard which can be locked. The charging desk should be posted in an unobtrusively strategic position, not far from the door, and where as wide a view as possible of the library can be obtained.

Catalogue Cabinet. If the card form of catalogue is adopted (see p. 74) excellent cabinets to take cards three inches by five inches may be purchased from firms specializing in library equipment. They should be stoutly made, as they are permanent furniture which will see a great deal of use. It is well worth while buying at the outset a much larger cabinet than one expects to use. In calculating the size required we may reckon that each drawer will contain on the average about 1,000 cards of medium thickness, the weight usually recommended for school library use; and a fully catalogued library will require at least two or three cards per book (apart from fiction)—one recent American estimate indeed says five. Thus a collection of 3,000 books needs a cabinet of at least six drawers, and one of eight or more is advisable. It is possible to purchase *sectional* cabinets, which may be built up as required. A useful refinement is the cabinet with gravity action, in which the trays holding the cards are set on a slight incline, so that the cards lie back at an easier angle for consultation. Whatever type of cabinet is purchased, it is wise to insist on one in which the cards are held in place in the drawers by metal rods running through slots in the cards.

The cabinet may be placed upon its own stand, or it may be put on a table.

Periodical Stand. For periodicals and magazines some form of rack or cabinet is required. Varieties are: (i) a series of

steeply sloping shelves, provided with ledges (on which the periodicals are placed) like the music holder on a piano. These shelves may be hinged, so that they can be raised forwards and upwards, space behind being used for the storage of previous issues of the periodicals on display; (ii) a rack with narrow compartments stepped up in tiers backwards. In these compartments the periodicals stand upright, each above the one in front of it; (iii) a rack with narrow vertical partitions, each partition being assigned to a particular periodical, which stands in it like a book on the shelves. Of these types, (i) is the most effective way of displaying periodicals attractively, but it requires more wall-space than (ii); (iii) is most economical of space, but it does not display the periodicals. On covers or portfolios to protect periodicals in use, see p. 90.

Newspaper Stand. This is an inclined surface, preferably fastened to the wall and not an island stand, provided with a spring rod which holds the paper in position. Provision should be made, if wall-space permits, for the display of at least two newspapers side by side, for purposes of comparison or contrast (see p. 89). An alternative method of holding newspapers is the *Newspaper Rack and Holder* (or *Prong File*). Here the paper is gripped along its folded edge by a divided rod with a loop in the centre by which it may be hung when not in use; or alternatively it may be rested by its ends in a rack, with the paper hanging downwards. The advantage of the *Stand* is display and convenience of consultation, of the *Rod and Rack* economy of space where several papers are taken and convenience of storage of recent back numbers; and the paper can be taken anywhere in the library for reading. There is, of course, no reason why both methods should not be used in combination.

Other useful items of equipment are: the *Vertical File*, to hold collections of pictures and other sheet material (see p. 115); *Pamphlet Cases* (see p. 54); a *Book Display Trough*, for display

of recent acquisitions, or of a selection of books on some special subject to which it is desired to call attention (see p. 92); *Book Supports* (see p. 85); *Exhibition Cases*, for showing rare or valuable books; a *Book Truck* for conveying books inside and outside the library. Lastly there must be provision on the wall for a *Blackboard*, for use in library instruction; and a *Bulletin* or *Notice Board.*

LIBRARIES IN SMALL ROOMS OR CLASS-ROOMS

If no room for the minimum standard described is available as a library room, many schools have shown that it is possible to do a great deal with less. *It is of the first importance to get recognition of the library as an essential element in the life and work of the School*; so it is most important not to wait for a suitable room before taking steps to create and build up a library. A room even of class-room size, recognized and treated as the library, makes possible many of the activities a library can serve.

Much can be done even where a class-room is not available to serve solely as a library, but is also needed for class use, if shelving is provided and the collection of books is, as far as possible, concentrated there; for by adjustment of the time-table it can be made possible for different classes to occupy the room at different times, and so be introduced to the books and taught their use. Again, as has already been pointed out (see p. 13), the librarian can do a great deal to prepare for a proper library room when the time comes. (On this generally, see S.L.A. Special Leaflet no. 1 *Libraries in Library Class-rooms.*)

It should nevertheless be realized that these devices are makeshifts, and are an inadequate substitute for a regularly equipped library room; and every means should be used to secure one.

3 ADMINISTRATION AND ROUTINE *

A · BOOK-SELECTION

BOOK-SELECTION IS one of the most important, but one of the most difficult, of the librarian's tasks. Its *general aims* are: (i) to provide material to meet the needs of readers, both for work in school and for recreation in the widest sense—both for information and imagination. To suggest that the school library should concern itself solely with 'work books', and that children should look to the public library for their recreational reading, is educationally unsound and quite impracticable. One of the functions of the library is to present a picture of human experience as a whole; and so there should at least be a token representation of all subjects; (ii) to maintain a balance between the needs of different subjects, interests and ages, so that a lopsided collection is avoided. In particular, the needs of younger children should not be forgotten, nor the needs of backward children; (iii) to establish and maintain a standard of quality. At each stage books should be *as good of their kind* as is possible; and not only accuracy and literary quality, but also attractiveness of presentation and format should be taken into account in judging whether a book should be added.

It is important to lay down a long-term policy and work to it consistently, and to plan ahead of demand. Books have often stimulated an interest which otherwise might never have been aroused.

Some Special Problems in Book-Selection

1 Basic Stock. There is a minimum provision of books without which a library cannot function efficiently. This is

termed 'Basic Stock'. It includes the indispensable books of general reference, and a nucleus of books covering the subjects and interests to be represented, including fiction. The provision of this minimum general stock must be a first charge on funds for a new or newly organized library. *The size of the school has little bearing on the size of the basic collection.* A capital grant should be allocated specifically for basic stock at the outset, distinct from the regular annual library grant (see p. 93).

A general indication of the ground which the basic stock should cover may be given. Subjects include: most of the important works of general reference (see next section); school librarianship; the Bible and religion; mythology; the nation and the community (politics, elementary economics, law, education, the armed forces, commerce); science and its main branches, and the story of scientific discovery; applied science and inventions; medicine (the body, health and disease, first aid); engineering (including railways, motors, ships, aeroplanes, wireless, and various forms of civil engineering); farming; domestic subjects; industries; art (including architecture, sculpture, painting, music); recreations and sports; language and literature, especially English, but also of languages taught in the school, with translations of great literature of other languages; history; geography and travel; lives of famous men and women. Above all, interests of special concern to children should not be forgotten, e.g. hobbies, scouting and guiding; careers; and fiction should be well represented. (See also S.L.A. Emergency Leaflet no. 2 *Basic Stock* [1947].)

The range of subjects covered is, in fact, that of a fully developed library. The books will naturally be chosen as the best available to form the nucleus of each subject, and the process of building up the library afterwards will consist in supplementing this basic collection.

Estimates of the size of a basic collection are: Carnegie Report (1936): 800 titles; S.L.A. Draft Report, 1,600. A work in several volumes for this purpose counts as a single title. The whole basic collection will hardly be purchased in a single

block; the purchase may well be spread over several months. On the Financial Grant for Basic Stock, see p. 93. These figures refer to the needs of grammar schools with sixth forms and advanced courses. Schools without these will probably require about two-thirds.

2 General Reference. In the general reference section of the library the following kinds of books are needed: a large encyclopaedia; a large and small English dictionary; literary books of reference, including dictionaries of literature, quotations, mythology; biographical dictionary; annuals and year-books; atlas; Post Office Guide; local Directory; railway and bus time-tables. In building up this section the *List of Books on Librarianship and Library Technique, and General Reference Books* (S.L.A., 2nd edition 1939, 3rd edition projected) will be found of considerable service. It contains an introduction dealing with the general reference section, and annotations are given on each book mentioned. *

3 Balance. In planning the ordered growth of the library, a system of proportional allocation of funds has been found useful, the total annual grant being divided into a number of units allotted to the different subjects and needs of the library. In an actual instance the grant is divided into forty units, of which eighteen are allotted to school subjects in varying proportions, mathematics, for instance, obviously needing less than history; seven to papers and periodicals; six to rebinding and repairs; the balance going to recreational and general reading, including fiction. A date is fixed, by which accounts have to be made up, and before which money allocated to each purpose must be spent; otherwise it returns to the general fund. In such a system the spending of the allocated units naturally follows the recommendation of the subject teachers concerned; but it is the duty of the librarian to see that the needs of all parts of the school are kept in view, so that the library does not become what is virtually

a staff or upper school library. The system need not be rigid; there is nothing to prevent variations from year to year, as, for instance, to meet some special demand. Within the subject-allocation the subject teacher naturally bears in mind any particular work planned for the year, such as a Special Period in history, or a subject to be treated as a Project, e.g. the Story of Transport (see p. 107). In this way, while the special needs of each year are met, a good all-round collection is gradually being built up. It is the librarian's responsibility to see that the best use is made of the funds available, and especially to provide for the extremely important sector of book-selection not covered by school subjects.

4 Censorship. The thorny problem of censorship, i.e. the exclusion of certain categories of books on special grounds, has presented difficulties at one time or another to most school librarians, and should perhaps be briefly touched upon. The classes of books concerned include those which in the interests of what is described as realism unduly emphasize the physical aspect of sex, or present it in a sordid or unwholesome way; those which appeal to perverted instincts, such as cruelty; and those which tend to encourage a cynical view of life.

The problem is not quite the same as that of a public library catering for adults. The school is dealing with immature and impressionable minds, and it is in the position of a trustee for the well-being of its pupils. The real problem is to correlate the greatest freedom with the right degree of protection from harmful influences; and books which the mature adult can read without harm may be harmful for the adolescent. All educators will agree that the overriding question is: 'Is the book likely to hinder or help the work which the school is seeking to do in the development of personality?' and this is the fundamental principle of judgment. Perhaps it is wise to err, if at all, on the side of freedom, especially if the tone and atmosphere of the school is healthy.

The problem is most acute, perhaps only acute, where books of high literary excellence, or books which offer a serious contribution to the understanding of social problems, seem to come within these categories. Many feel that while such books are not suitable for the younger adolescent, they should certainly be put in the hands of the sixth form. It is possible to meet this need by forming a small sixth-form section of the library. But some would say that the character of such books usually makes it unlikely that the younger reader will be interested in them.

5 Discarding. The process of discarding is complementary to that of book selection. It is important to keep the library free from material no longer of practical use because it is either physically worn out or out of date. In the case of a worn-out book, the normal routine of selection will decide whether it should be replaced with a new copy or whether it is better to buy another book on the same subject. Subject teachers and others interested should be invited regularly to look through sections of the library for out-of-date books. It must, however, be remembered that a book out of date in some respects may be worth keeping for some particular chapter, or for historical interest (e.g. an early manual of chemistry). Old copies of annuals like Whitaker should not be discarded, as they are useful in library class-work (see p. 102).

6 Choice of Edition. In choosing his books the librarian should pay attention not only to the content of the books he purchases, but also to their physical make-up, the quality of their binding and paper, of their typography and illustrations. Where books of information are concerned, there is usually no choice; one must choose a treatise on light according to its contents, irrespective of its format. But there is a large range of books—which I should like to call *primary books*—whose material is of permanent human interest—the great imaginative works of literature, especially of poetry, drama and classical fiction; the classics of religion, science, travel,

history; books containing illustrations of great art—architecture, sculpture, painting—books, in short, which do not grow out of date. Here the librarian should do all he can to make sure that the editions he buys are worthy. Large books of first-rate illustrations of architecture, painting and sculpture are often worth many books of criticism. I would plead for one or two examples of the work of famous private presses.

Aids to Book Selection

The best ground for judgment of a book is personal knowledge both of the book and of those who will read it. But the most active school librarian is incompetent to judge outside his own field of interest, nor can he keep abreast with what exists or is published. He will therefore look to every dependable source of information to which he has access. We will enumerate the most important of these.

1 Colleagues and Pupils. The school librarian should always welcome suggestions from every quarter. Help from within the school is particularly welcome as it is evidence of an active interest in the work of the library—the best possible augury for its success as an educational influence in the school. Suggestion books kept in the Common Room for the staff, and in the library for the school, help to crystallize this interest. Many schools have selection committees, separate or joint, of staff and pupils (see p. 119). The help of school societies may be invited (see p. 114).

2 The Public Library. The school librarian should make a point of friendly contact with the staff of the local public library. He should get to know the scope of the collection, both in the adult and children's departments. He should make a practice, if possible, of seeing all new books when displayed. He may always rely on receiving friendly help and advice. His own choice of books may well be influenced by what the public library has or has not in stock (see p. 125).

3 Local Booksellers. A good local bookshop carries a wide range of books, and recent titles of general interest are in normal times kept in stock. Many booksellers are willing to order books not in stock for inspection. Needless to say, it is unreasonable to ask the help of the bookseller in this way unless the school makes purchases through him. *

4 Book Exhibitions and Book Weeks. Before the War the *Sunday Times* in conjunction with the National Book Council (now League) organized a valuable Book Exhibition every November. At these exhibitions selections of books on different subjects published during the year could be examined, and many important publishers exhibited selections of their own publications. Recently the National Book League has been organizing a series of exhibitions of books on special subjects —English Poetry, Book Illustration, Book Design, Victorian Fiction, etc.—at their Exhibition Hall at 7 Albemarle Street, London. The catalogues of these exhibitions are useful works of reference.

5 Local Education Authorities' Libraries. In some areas local education authorities maintain libraries of text-books and other books of value to teachers. Where such libraries exist they should be consulted. I would make the suggestion that each such library might well include a typical choice of basic stock material suitable for schools in the area.

6 Booklists. For the guidance of the school librarian by far the most useful lists are selective lists provided with brief annotations describing the scope of each book listed. Many such lists have been issued by associations interested in special fields of study; by local education authorities; and by municipal or county libraries. The School Library Association has already produced, or has in prospect, a number of such lists, drawn up usually in collaboration with an appropriate subject association and similar lists have appeared in the *School Library Review*.

Of selective lists special mention should be made of those issued by the National Book League. Several of these are published every year. They are usually sponsored by an organization interested in the subject in question.

7 Reviews. These are the most valuable source of information on current publications, but they are most difficult to cover and appraise. Mention should especially be made (*a*) for general purposes, of the well-known weekly periodicals (*Times Literary Supplement*, *Spectator*, *New Statesman*, *Time and Tide*, *Listener*, *John o' London's Weekly*), and the national Sunday papers; and (*b*) for special subjects, of the various professional journals. In both of these categories it must be remembered that most of the reviews are written from the point of view of the adult reader, and so are useful chiefly for the needs of the Upper School. A serious comprehensive and permanent scheme of reviewing books for younger readers is an urgent need, and merits the consideration of all organizations interested in this field. We should here mention the
* *Junior Bookshelf.*

8 Publishers' Catalogues. Some of these are mere lists of titles and prices; others give what are the equivalent of short reviews, sometimes accompanied by considerable quotations from the books dealt with. Such notices will naturally tend to emphasize the merits of the book described. A general monthly list of publications is *Books of the Month* classified in roughly Dewey order. *Whitaker's Cumulative Booklist* lists the publications progressively of each year.

* **9 'Books for Youth'** (1936), published by the Library Association, is of special importance, particularly for the middle and lower school. It covers about 4,000 entries, most of which are annotated. It is very desirable that this book shall be brought up to date as soon as possible. A new edition is promised.

10 'Four to Fourteen' (13th edition, 1940), published by * the National Book Council (now the National Book League), includes about 1,000 entries with brief annotations of books suitable for children between the ages suggested by the title.

Lastly, a word on *Remainders*. These present a special problem. They are books which have not found a sufficient market at their original published price. This may be due merely to misfortune, as when two books of similar scope clash in publication. Or a good book may have been sold at a price higher than the public was prepared to pay. This happened before the War to several fine books on art. Such books may be well worth purchase at the reduced price of a remainder. But apart from these cases the librarian is advised to exercise caution, and never to buy a book merely because it seems a bargain. Each book should be judged on its contents, and never solely on its price.

B · ORDERING AND ACCESSIONING

WHEN a book has been passed for purchase, it is the librarian's task to order it and prepare it for circulation when received. The following are the routine steps involved.

Ordering

1 Check the title, to make sure it is not already in the library.

2 Enquire if it may be obtained second-hand, or as an ex-libris copy from one of the large subscription libraries. These libraries often have good copies of recent books no longer needed by them for circulation, which are available for sale to the public not less than six months after publication. Many grant discount to libraries. Books available as ex-libris copies will usually be books of a general appeal, not technical books. Second-hand shops are a most important source of

material, and librarians who travel about the country with their eyes open gradually acquire a very useful knowledge of possible sources and reasonable prices. Most second-hand bookshops are general in scope, but some specialize in definite subjects, such as topography, theology, science. Here again the librarian will gradually gain experience (see p. 96).

3 Order the book, either directly or through the recognized official channels. In any case keep a copy of your order; for this a manifold book is useful. Give all particulars of author, title, edition, publisher, price. Where a centralized purchasing system is in operation, *do your best to ensure that the books are obtained as required*, and you do not have to await a termly, or worse, an annual bulk order.

4 On receipt, check the book against the order list and invoice, collate it (i.e. examine it for defects, especially missing or duplicated sections). Return at once any book found defective and secure a sound copy.

Note · It is a great advantage and, in both long- and short-term policy, an economy, if the librarian is given some discretion to buy books without previous sanction by a selection committee, and to draw for this purpose to an agreed limit on a petty cash account. In this way he is able to take advantage of opportunities of securing useful material as it occurs.

On the purchase of books in reinforced binding, see p. 85.

Accessioning and Preparing for Circulation

1 Enter the book in the *Accession Book*. This is a book recording the stock of the library in the order of its acquisition. Books specially designed for the purpose may be obtained from firms dealing in library equipment. Alternatively a strongly bound note-book of ledger size may be used, ruled in vertical columns across both pages, to record (i) date of acquisition, (ii) accession number (i.e. the number indicating

the order of acquisition of the volume, each volume having its own number), (iii) author, (iv) title, (v) publisher, (vi) class number (see pp. 39; 48), (vii) source (name of donor or bookseller), (viii) price, if bought, (ix) note of entry in catalogue, (x) any further information, e.g. 'rebound', 'discarded', 'lost', with date in each case (see pp. 84; 87). If a book is in several volumes, a separate line and accession number must be assigned to each volume of the set. If a book is lost or discarded, and another copy bought to replace it, *the new copy must be given its own accession number*, and not that of the book it replaces.

The accession book is an absolutely necessary record of stock, and is especially valuable when reports or statistics have to be compiled.

2 Classify the book (see p. 48).

3 Mark the book as library property. A simple and well designed bookplate is effective, and helps indirectly to secure respect for the book. Where a stamp is used it should be as neat and pleasing as possible. Some libraries stamp a special page, or pages, in each book (e.g. page 31), and even each plate, for identification in cases of suspected theft. I personally dislike the proceeding of marking plates as it conveys, in every volume, a subtle suggestion of mistrust.

4 Mark the book with accession number and class number. Space for these may be provided in the bookplate or a special label may be inserted. Some librarians also mark their books on the spine, as an aid to correct replacement on the shelves. This is best done with an electric stylus, and not with adhesive labels, which tend to get dirty and come off (but varnish helps to keep them clean). But whatever method is used, lettering is an expert job, and it is far from easy to maintain uniformity. Besides, it must be said that to secure accurate replacement with a classification like Dewey's a long symbol may be

required, such as 621·384, together with a letter or two to indicate author, for each book on wireless. Books of general reference, which it is desired to retain in the library, may be prominently distinguished with a neat red disk or similar mark on the spine, together with a red label below the bookplate with the words 'Not to be taken from the library without the permission of the librarian'.

5 Prepare book-card or book-ticket, insert book-pocket within rear cover of book, and date-slip within front cover, where these are required by the charging system adopted (see p. 76).

6 Enter the book on the shelf-list (see p. 75).

7 Catalogue the book (see pp. 62–75).

8 Place the book on a 'Recent Accessions Shelf', or otherwise display it for a limited period, say a week, so that users of the library may have an opportunity of seeing it before it goes into circulation. The book-jacket may also be displayed in the library, or better still, elsewhere in the school (see p. 92).

9 Put the book in its place on the shelves.

Classification and Cataloguing

BOTH CLASSIFICATION and cataloguing are based on certain general principles; but they involve a great amount of detailed interpretation in their practical application to an extremely varied field, and to deal in any way fully with them would require a large increase in space. It should be stated at the outset that the scope of the following sections on classification and cataloguing is severely limited by the scale of this manual. The sections which follow, therefore, must be restricted to (*a*) a broad statement of principles, and (*b*) a very general consideration of their application. For further

detail in a fuller, though still brief, treatment, the reader is referred to the present writer's chapters in the *Guide for School Librarians*, and to M. S. Taylor, *Handbook of Classification and Cataloguing for School and College Libraries*. The fundamental English works on these subjects are: W. C. Berwick Sayers, *Manual of Classification* (2nd edition, 1944), and H. A. Sharp, *Cataloguing* (3rd edition, 1944).

C · CLASSIFICATION

THE *aim* of library classification is to sort out and present the material in the library in such a way as to give the greatest help to the users of the library. For the most part the reader comes to the library to find out what material the library possesses on some particular topic. The task of the librarian is therefore to arrange his material so that books on the same topic are found together on the shelves, and books on allied topics near them.

The *characteristics* of a good system of library classification are: (i) that it covers the whole range of human experience and knowledge, so that every topic has a place in the scheme; (ii) that it is logically constructed; (iii) that it reproduces as far as possible the natural relations between the subjects covered; (iv) that it is worked out in sufficient detail; (v) that it has a satisfactory notation; and (vi) that it is properly indexed.

Choice of a System

The school librarian cannot be too strongly warned against attempting to build up a system of his own. The famous systems, such as those of Dewey or Bliss, are the work of men, or groups of men, who have made a profound, often a life, study of the principles and application of classification. To attempt to construct a system of one's own is to invite disaster; it is bound to break down, and the work already done will have to be done all over again by the librarian or his successor. The librarian is therefore most earnestly advised

to choose one of the well-known systems, which have been used and tested, whose strength (and weakness) is already known.

Dewey: Decimal Classification

In this system knowledge is divided into ten main classes, the first being for general works (e.g. encyclopaedias) the subject matter of which is not confined to any one main class, and the other nine assigned to the great branches of knowledge, like Philosophy, Religion, Science. Each class is similarly divided into ten divisions, one general (e.g. General Science), the rest covering the main branches of the subject (as Physics and Chemistry). Each division in the same way consists of ten sections, one covering the subject in general (e.g. Physics as a whole), the other nine assigned to its branches (as Light, Heat, Sound). (See general view of the scheme pp. 58–60.)

The *Main Classes* are denoted by the symbols 000–099 (General Class); 100–199 (Philosophy); 500–599 (Science) and so on. The *Divisions* within the main classes are represented 500–509, Science in general; 530–539, Physics; 540–549, Chemistry. Similarly, the *Sections*: 530, Physics in general; 535, Light. (It will be noticed that the symbol 0 regularly represents a subject taken in its general aspect.) The symbol 937 represents: main class 900, or History; division 30, or Ancient History; section 7, or Rome. Thus the symbol as a whole stands for the history of Ancient Rome. If further subdivision is needed, it can be carried out by the insertion of a decimal point and the addition of more figures. Thus the symbol 821·47 may be analysed as follows:

800 Main Class: Literature
20 Division : English
1 Section : Poetry
·4 Subsection : Later Seventeenth Century
7 Sub-subsection: Milton.

i.e. *821·47 Milton's Poetical Works*

This number is called the *class-number*, and since the class-number denotes not the individual book but the class to which that book belongs it follows that all books belonging to the same class will have the same class-number and stand together on the shelves. All books by and about Milton will have the class number 821·47, however many or however few they are. They will always follow books with the class-number 821·46 (Cowley) and precede those with 821·48 (Dryden). The effect is that all books on the same topic will be together on the shelves, and the *order* in which topics appear on the shelves will always be the same even when the actual position of books alters, as books in earlier classes are added or withdrawn. The function of the class-number is thus double: it tells anyone familiar with the classification much about the subject matter of the book, and it directs any user of the library immediately to the place where the book is to be found.

Dewey: Main Advantages and Disadvantages

These may be summarized as follows, as they concern the school librarian.

Advantages

1 The scheme is simple in conception, easy to understand, and generally workable.

2 It is in most sections fully worked out, and it is usually not difficult to find a place for new subjects.

3 Its notation is straightforward, if sometimes rather cumbrous; and (for the librarian) the 'Common Subdivisions' are a valuable aid to memory (see p. 59).

4 It is fully indexed.

5 It is well-known. Most public libraries use it, and so do the great majority of schools which have properly classified libraries. It is therefore easy for the librarian to get help and advice in applying it.

6 It has been adopted as the basis of the international 'Universal Decimal Classification', which originated in the Brussels Institute and which is used in an increasing number of scientific and other periodicals.

On the other hand, Dewey has been criticized on a number of grounds:

Disadvantages

1 The order of the main classes separates Language (400) widely from Literature (800), and Social Studies (300) from History (900). History (900) is awkwardly divided: first comes the section General History (900–9); then the sections Travel and Geography (910–19) and Biography (920–9); then the rest of History, ancient and modern (930–999).

2 The treatment of some subjects is disliked: (*a*) In the Literatures Dewey divides first by form (i.e. into Poetry, Drama, etc.) and then by period (cf. the example quoted, Milton 821·47), whereas many teachers of English would prefer a primary division by period. Where authors like Goldsmith or Goethe have written in different literary forms, their works are separated in the classification. (*b*) In the section Travel, the symbol 917·1 covers both Travel in Canada and a Geography of Canada, and throughout the section works of topography, popular travel and geography are mingled. (Physical Geography is classed with Geology—550.) (*c*) Much of the class Art (700) is unsatisfactory, especially the divisions Architecture (720), Painting (750) and Music (780).

3 Minor points are: the disproportion (for a British library) in the treatment of America, scores of pages being devoted to its history and topography as compared with two to Great Britain's; and American literature stands at the head of all literatures.

4 The notation often involves long symbols for common topics, e.g. 629·133 (Aeroplanes), 621·384 (Wireless). Symbols of six digits are needed to distinguish separate reigns in English History, e.g. 942·081 Victoria. (It is important, however, to note that there is no difficulty in *using* these long symbols for anyone who understands decimals.)

5 The full tables are very lengthy; the last (14th) edition comprises nearly 2,000 pages, and large sections contain far more detail than could be required in any conceivable school library; see, for example, the treatment of Botany, Psychology, Medicine, the 1914–19 War. This makes the book expensive * (£3 15*s.* 0*d.*). Unfortunately the abridged edition is not detailed enough for some purposes of the school library.

Purchasers should perhaps be cautioned that Dewey had individual ideas on spelling, and his 'reformed speling' is used in the book. However, the fourteenth edition shows some return to a more traditional system.

Some Possible Ways of Adapting Dewey to Meet these Criticisms

It is undesirable to make modifications in a well-known scheme without the most careful consideration. But there are a number of cases where this has been done. Dewey himself makes no objection, provided that the alteration is plainly an alteration, and shows itself as such, e.g. by the introduction of a letter in the symbol. Apart from this, the following possibilities present themselves.

1 Broken Order . Here the numbers of Dewey are kept, but the classes do not follow this order on the shelves. The classes where this is most likely to be adopted are (*a*) History, (*b*) Language. (*a*) History. The divisions Travel and Biography (910–929) which interrupt History are simply put after 999, at the end of History, so that the order on the shelves is: 900–909; 930–999; 910–929. At the end of 909 a shelf-guide (see p. 57) is placed saying that 910–929 follows 999. (*b*) The

class Language (400) presents a more complicated problem. There is no particular advantage in putting the class as a whole next to Literature (800); one wants to put English Language (420) immediately before English Literature (820), German (430) before German Literature (830) and so on. Perhaps this could be done by simply placing the sections in this order with a general note after 399 saying that 400 will be found shelved before 800, 420 before 820 and so on. Alternatively a symbol might be devised, such as 800/400, 820/420, and so on. The stroke distinguishes this clearly from the ordinary decimal number, and the 420 (421, 422, etc.) used exactly as they are in the Language section; thus an English dictionary would be 820/423. Or the symbol could be shortened by the omission of the first two digits, to read 820/3.

2 Literature: Classification by Period · This can be secured if the suggestion made by Miss M. Cant (*School and College Library Practice*) is adopted, viz., to use the symbol 820H for all English Literature, with a digit to indicate the century, e.g. 820H5, all English literature of the 1500's, 820H8, the nineteenth century.

3 Geography may be separated from travel by being all *classified* as physical geography. In this way all books on the geography of England, whether general, economic, physical or political, will be placed together in the Science class (but many will dislike the result).

Others may wish to place Travel in a country with the History of the country. This may be done by using the class number for History followed by a T, e.g. 943 History of Germany; 943T Travel in Germany.

Personally I feel that while there is something to be said for the moving of complete classes (by 'Broken Order'), the less the recognized system is tampered with in other ways the better; if the system is selected, it is wise to make the fewest possible modifications.

Bliss: Bibliographical Classification

This system was first published in 1935, with a second edition in 1936. It is an attempt to carry out in a practical scheme of library classification the conclusions set forth in the author's earlier books, especially *The Organization of Knowledge in Libraries*, a book of fundamental importance for the study of the principles of classification as they apply to a library. Bliss's chief aim has been to build up a system in which the relations between subjects as they are recognized in modern scientific thought are reproduced as closely as possible, and his system has in fact approached far more nearly to this ideal than any other known to the writer.

The general principle of analysis—the division of knowledge into main classes, and the progressive subdivision of these as far as is desired—is the same as that described already under Dewey; but the analysis is carried out in a more scholarly manner, and with far more attention to modern practice. He has taken extreme pains to bring out in his order of classes, and of divisions within the classes, the inter-relations between subjects, and some beautiful examples of successful placing may be quoted. This principle may be illustrated in the general order of the classes, which advance from the fundamental studies of Philosophy and Mathematics through the Physical and Biological Sciences to Man; and on through Psychology to History (including Geography), the Social Sciences, Religion, Art, Literature. In almost every case the last division within a class is that of a borderline subject leading to the next class, and so the system as a whole gives the impression of an orderly and evolutionary development, especially as within the classes the same progressive method is consistently applied.

The main classes are denoted by letters, with nine supplementary classes indicated by numbers. Bliss is thus enabled to provide for a very large number of classes, divisions and

sections with great economy of notation (i.e. with short symbols), and his notation is on the average much briefer than Dewey's for the same degree of precision.

As Dewey provides a valuable means of indicating commonly occurring viewpoints in his 'Common Subdivisions', so Bliss has a useful series of what he terms 'Systematic Schedules', offering patterns for applying the general tables to particular parallel cases (e.g. in Literature and History).

The classification is published in a volume in typescript of about 350 pages, and includes an introduction summarizing the principles of the system and explaining its application; the tables; and an index of subjects. The tables only give subdivision to two letters, though in certain sections (e.g. History, Literature) provision is made for further subdivision by the systematic schedules mentioned above. Again, even where only two letters are given, subordinate topics are usually listed, though not given specific symbols. Thus, for instance, Music has three divisions, VV (general), VW (theory), VX (scores). Special subjects like Harmony, Counterpoint, Orchestration and so on are possible subdivisions of VW; the librarian can without much difficulty add letters in each * case. The classification in its full form is planned to appear in four volumes, of which Volume I (1940) and Volume II (1947) have so far appeared. It is much to be desired that an edition for schools, with the necessary working out, should be published. For general view of the scheme see p. 60.

Bliss: Main Advantages and Disadvantages

The main considerations for and against the adoption of Bliss in a school library may be stated as follows:

Advantages

1 The system is up to date, sound and scholarly, and it gives a remarkably convincing view of the range of human experience and the relations between its branches.

2 The system meets very well the needs of the curriculum. Specialists will normally find its treatment of their own subjects to their liking. This applies especially to History and Literature; and also to the consistent linking of particular branches of the theoretical sciences to their technical and industrial applications.

3 The notation (letters and digits) is brief and economical.

4 Bliss throughout offers a really remarkable variety of alternative placings of subjects, to meet differing views held by scholars.

Disadvantages

1 As the system is recent, it is not nearly so familiar as Dewey. It is probably used in no public library (for most were classified on the Dewey system long before Bliss appeared, and the reclassification of a large library is an extremely costly business). This means in practice that help and advice on its detailed application is less easy to come by than in the case of Dewey.

2 The directions for applying the systematic schedules are sometimes difficult to follow.

3 Some consider that a letter-notation is less easy to follow than a purely numerical one. (But more letters than three are hardly ever required.)

A number of schools in this country have adopted Bliss's scheme and speak enthusiastically of it.

The Cheltenham Scheme *

This is a compact little scheme, worked out originally for use in the library of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, a library containing over 15,000 volumes. The scheme was published (1937) in a small volume containing an introduction, tables, and an index of subjects. The introduction contains some

useful practical advice on the process of classifying books. The scheme is an unpretentious one, and is not designed to compete with the general systems we have mentioned. We refer to it as a system planned for school use; and schools which have used it speak well of it. (For a full review, see the *School Librarian*, March 1938, pp. 37–43.)

Choosing a System of Classification

It will be clear from what has been said that the choice of a system is not an easy one. The librarian who has to make the choice is advised to study the alternatives as fully as he can, bearing in mind the considerations given above. He should also consult his subject colleagues on the classification as it affects their own subjects, though not necessarily to adopt their view. As between Bliss and Dewey, we may sum up the case by saying that Bliss is without doubt the better system, but it is not worked out in such detail, nor is it so well known, as Dewey.

On other general systems of classification, such as Brown's *Subject Classification*, used in many English public libraries, especially about London; the *Library of Congress Classification*, used in several college libraries, some public libraries, and at least one school library; and Ranganathan's *Colon Classification*; reference should be made to Berwick Sayers' *Manual of Classification* (2nd edition, 1944).

Should the School Adopt the Classification used in the Public Library?

The question is worth raising and discussing briefly. The arguments in favour of using the same system are (1) children who have become familiar with the scheme at school will be able to find their way about the public library without difficulty; (2) the librarian himself will be able to look to the public library for some help in applying it. On the other side it can be urged: (1) it is important that the system chosen

shall be the best for the school itself; (2) if the use of a proper system of classification is taught, it is not very difficult to learn to use another one.

Classification in Practice

I General Advice

1 Get as clear an idea as possible of the principles of classification from a general manual (e.g. Berwick Sayers' *Introduction to Library Classification*—6th edition, 1943).

2 Make yourself thoroughly familiar with the system selected. Study it in its tables, and in the chapters devoted to it in the books on classification. Visit libraries, especially school libraries, which use it; and take every opportunity of discussing it with librarians who know it.

3 But by far the best way, the only real way in fact, to learn classification is by the actual practice of classifying books. It is one of the most fascinating branches of librarianship. It is, furthermore, one of the most effective ways of getting a good working knowledge of the contents of your own library.

4 When once a scheme has been adopted, do not make your own modifications without the most careful consideration, and never without consulting a librarian of experience. Some modifications have been tried and have proved satisfactory; but most are more likely to cause trouble than to give help.

II Classifying a Book in Practice

A · PRINCIPLES AND GENERAL RULES. The fundamental principle, which follows directly from what we defined as the aim of library classification (p. 37), is that the book shall be placed where it will be most useful. Useful to whom?

To the reader who comes into the library to explore a particular subject. This leads us to a number of basic rules, which we may briefly state.

Before we set these out, however, it will be well to make clear the meaning, for the purposes of library classification, of the terms *subject* and *form*. By *subject* we mean the matter with which the book deals—betting, for instance, or relativity, or Henry VIII. By *form* we mean the outward shape in which this matter is presented, e.g. as a treatise, as a series of essays, as a history of the subject, as a bibliography, or in dictionary form. When we are dealing with works of literature, the term takes on a special meaning, that of *literary form*, as poetry, essays, drama, prose fiction, oratory.

The basic rules, then, are these:

1 Class a book according to its subject first, then within that subject, by its form. In other words, ask yourself what the book is about, and having settled that, in what form is the subject presented. A History of Painting is about Painting, not about History; class it, therefore, in the general subject Painting; within the class Painting in the subdivision assigned to *Painting treated historically* (not in dictionary form, or in bibliographies of painting).

1a But there is one important exception to this rule: in literature, where the rule is *to disregard the 'subject' and to class by form.* Thus *Paradise Lost* is not treated as a theological work and placed in Theology, but as English Literature, and, within that subject, as English Poetry.

2 Place a book under the most specific or precise heading possible. In other words, do not be satisfied with a loose approximation. If a book is about bees, classify it so, and not more vaguely under insects.

3 If a book deals with two or three divisions of a subject, class it in the one which is predominant; if it is not easy to see

which is predominant, in the one dealt with first. If it deals with more than three divisions, class it in the general division covering them all. For instance, if a book compares two or three different forms of art, as sculpture, painting, music, place it with whichever seems to be the more prominent topic; if all are equal, with Sculpture. But if more than three divisions are touched, then in the general division of the class Art. (Personally I should prefer to do this even with three parallel topics.)

4 If a book deals with a new subject, for which there is no place in the tables, decide to what main class, division, etc., it belongs, and give it a provisional place, making a note of it in the tables and index of your classification scheme.

This leads us to the practical process of classifying a book. The steps are: (i) *Find what is the subject of the book.* For this, examine the book to get a clear idea of its scope and purpose. Do not rely on its title alone. The preface will often be useful. (ii) *Find the place assigned to this subject in the scheme.* This is usually, but not always, easy. Decide first on its main class; then proceed in the same way to division, section, sub-section, narrowing the field at each stage, as far as you are able, or desire, to go. Often the negative method of elimination (ruling out the classes it does *not* belong to) is a help. (iii) *Check your result by seeing if the other books similarly classified in the library are books of the same sort.* It will be remembered that all books on the same topic bear the same class-number. See if this is so. In cases of doubt, it is worth while seeing how the book has been classed in other libraries, the local public library, for instance. (iv) *Treat decisions generally as provisional.* They may need revision in the light of fuller knowledge.

B · EXAMPLES OF THE PROCESS IN OPERATION.

Let us see how these rules work out in practice. We will begin with a simple case, indicating the steps, as we have described them:

1 Hastings, DICTIONARY OF THE BIBLE

Step (i) *Subject of the book.* The book is about the Bible, as its title indicates. It is about the Bible as a whole, not about any particular part of it; and it consists of articles on biblical topics in dictionary arrangement.

Step (ii) *Class assigned.* Main class: Religion—200–299; division: Bible—220–229; section: Bible treated generally or as a whole—220; (221, for instance, would be Old Testament). This section includes a number of sub-sections, one of which is 220·3, assigned to Dictionaries of the Bible. This is therefore the class-number we assign it. Notice how the process has gradually narrowed the field until we have come to the precise symbol we need. It remains to go on to step (iii) and see what other books there are classed 220·3.

Step (iii) *Check.* Smith's *Dictionary of the Bible*, or the *Temple Dictionary*, will be found here.

2 Gilbert White, NATURAL HISTORY OF SELBORNE

Step (i) *Subject.* Examination of the text and index shows that the book records observations on natural history (especially of birds and animals), and also on archaeology, in the parish of Selborne in Hampshire. It is presented in the form of a series of letters to White's friends, Pennant and Barrington, and is of high literary appeal. At the same time, its literary appeal does not dominate its scientific importance, and does not warrant its being classified as literature. Neither is it to be regarded as a book of purely topographical description. It would seem primarily to be a book of scientific observation of a particular locality.

Step (ii) *Class.* We may eliminate classes 800 (Literature) and 900 (History and Travel), and treat it as coming within 500 (Science). Within the main class Science, it may be treated as purely general in scope (i.e. falling within the division for

general science—500–509), or as having a predominantly biological interest, in which case it will be placed in the division 570–579 (Biology). In the first case it will be placed in the section for scientific travel and description 508, within which 508·42 is assigned to England, and 508·4227 to Hampshire. Note, however, that even now we have not assigned it specifically to Selborne. If it is placed in 570, a similar analysis will be made (574·94227).

Step (iii) *Check.* A book near will be Jefferies' *Nature Near London.*

3 Wilson, HOLLAND AND BRITAIN

Step (i) *Subject.* The book belongs to the well-known series issued by Collins, designed to bring out the interrelations between Britain and various other countries. Thus it is divided between Britain and Holland. The contacts touched on include travel, art, commerce, literature, history—history being perhaps the dominating one. This being so, should the book be regarded as on Britain, or on Holland, or on both equally? Here the principle first enunciated, 'Where will the book be most useful?', comes in. In a British library it will obviously be much more useful for readers interested in Holland than in Britain; so we regard Holland: History, as its subject.

Step (ii) *Class.* Main class: History (900); division: Modern History, Europe (940); section: Netherlands (949·2).

Step (iii) *Check.* Other histories of Holland will be found in the same class. In this example the main difficulty was deciding the real subject of the book. Once this was done, it was easy to place it in the scheme.

4 Lilienthal, T.V.A.

Step (i) *Subject.* From the title this sounds simple and straight forward—the Tennessee Valley Authority. But reflection

tells us that a book on such a subject may touch on many fields of human activity—political, economic, engineering, historical (an account of a particular achievement of American twentieth-century administration), or topographical (an account of a particular region of America); so the title alone does not take us far. A careful examination of this extremely interesting book enables us to eliminate some of these possibilities. It is not primarily concerned with regional description, nor with recent American history as such; neither does it deal with the engineering problems involved. It is concerned to some extent with the political and economic aspects of the scheme, and with the operation of public planning in a democratic state. But the preface shows that the main purpose of the book is to plead for the harnessing of technology in the service of the people. 'We have a choice: to use science either for evil or for good.' From this I should conclude that the main subject is the welfare of a community through the right control and application of scientific technology.

Step (ii) *Class*. It would seem obvious to eliminate all classes except Applied Science (600) and Social Studies (300). Within either class it must come within the general division (600–9) or (300–9). I have myself little doubt, however, that its main appeal is sociological, and should choose (300–9). I should like to see a section or sub-section within this division assigned to planning, whether town or regional; but there is not one. Instead the official place for planning in Dewey's fourteenth edition is under 711, i.e. under Dewey's division, Landscape and Civic Art. Here places are assigned to town and country planning, the planning of a region being given the class 711·3, and if Dewey is followed this number must be given. I do not find this altogether satisfactory. For technical planning (i.e. the technical concentration of resources) there should be a number in the 600–9 division; for purely architectural lay-out in 720; for planning as a social device in 300–9.

It will be seen that the difficulties in classifying this book

are twofold: the difficulty of deciding exactly what is the subject of the book, and the difficulty of finding a place in the classification tables for this subject. Fortunately few books offer such problems.

Step (iii) *Check*. In the same sub-section will be found other books on regional planning, e.g. County of London Plan.

III Some Special Cases

A · BIOGRAPHY. There are three recognized methods of dealing with Biography:

1 To arrange all biographies in a single class, Biography, in alphabetical order of the persons whose lives are written.

2 To place all biographies in a separate class, but to classify them according to occupation or interest within this class.

3 To classify by subject, throughout main scheme.

Method (3) is probably best for a school library, lives of scientists being placed in the main class Science (509·2), of musicians in Music (780·92), of statesmen in History, under the appropriate country and period (e.g. the younger Pitt 942·073—George III). But a class Biography is needed still, both for collective works, and for the lives of people not closely identified with any special subject.

B · QUICK REFERENCE BOOKS. Books such as encyclopaedias, dictionaries, year books, and all books of general reference are conveniently shelved separately in a section of their own. In the catalogue they may be marked *Ref.*, followed by their class-number (a French dictionary being marked *Ref.* 443); and as far as possible they should be arranged on the shelves within the section in order of these numbers. But as many of these books are large, their order may in practice

have to be governed by exigencies of shelving. They should not be allowed on issue out of the library apart from exceptional circumstances, and should be specially marked (see pp. 27; 36).

C · OVERSIZE BOOKS (*books taller than nine or ten inches*). These are placed in special shelving (see p. 20) and classified in exactly the same way as the main sequence of books. They may be marked *Fol*(io) in addition to their class-number; thus the Phaidon Press *Velasquez* will be *Fol.* 759·6.

D · PAMPHLETS. These may be classified and shelved in the same way as books. But as they are easily damaged or lost if placed among books on the shelves, they should be either (i) simply bound (this can often be done at school) or (ii) put in special pamphlet cases or boxes, or (iii) kept in a vertical file. If several are bound together, the rules for classifying composite books apply (see p. 48). Pamphlets within a box can each be classified, and arranged within the box in the order of their classes, the numbers contained within the box being marked on the outside; in the vertical file each pamphlet is separately classified, and they are arranged in class order within the file. The class-number may be preceded by the letters *Pam.*

E · BOOKS TEMPORARILY RETAINED. It is often desired to retain in the library books normally available for issue. This may happen when work is being done on a project, or when examinations are at hand. It is worth while reserving a special shelf for these. In one school such books are indicated with a piece of red wool fastened over the spine of the book. Books so marked count as temporary reference books (see p. 106).

F · FICTION. Fiction is normally separated from the main classification and shelved in alphabetical order of authors' names, though it may, if desired, be roughly classified under

types: school stories, historical novels, detective stories, and so on.

G · PICTURES AND CUTTINGS. These should be classified exactly as the books are, and placed in the order of classification in the vertical file. Close classification will here be essential and the value of a detailed classification scheme most marked (see also pp. 37; 115).

IV Planning the Room

The general order of books on the shelves will follow the order of the classification adopted, and will go, class by class, clockwise round the room. The chief points to settle are (*a*) the location of special groups of books, especially general reference and fiction; and (*b*) the most convenient point in the room at which to start the general order.

a · General Reference is necessarily placed where there is provision for oversize books. It is particularly convenient if there is here a projecting ledge or shelf where books may be easily consulted. *Fiction* is best kept in a position where there is easy access for a number of people at once. Thus a wall location is better than an alcove. Other things being equal, a place near the door may be preferred, as this is likely to mean the least disturbance of other readers.

b · The decisions reached in (*a*) will go far to settle the second question. The obvious place to start the main sequence will be immediately to the left of the door on entrance, unless this position is already occupied by fiction; if it is, then immediately after the fiction. From this point the scheme will run continuously round the room, except where it may be interrupted by the reference section mentioned above. Where there are alcoves, many librarians—and subject-teachers—would like them to be assigned to subjects, so as to have, for instance, a French alcove or a history alcove. This is often

possible without disturbing the proper order of the scheme. But it should not be attempted where it involves dislocation.

V Classifying a Whole Library

The process is the same as that described for individual books, but carried out in the mass. The books are first sorted out into their main classes. These classes are broken up into divisions, divisions into sections, and so on. Books which present difficulties are put aside for consideration later.

The operation is not so difficult or so lengthy as it might appear to be. Whole classes of books sort themselves out almost automatically, especially in history and literature. The process is interesting, and gives insight into the contents of the library which is most valuable when the librarian is asked for advice on reading or research (see also p. 117).

It is wise from the outset to space out the classes over the library. In this way large empty spaces are avoided, and much moving of books later is saved. We can easily arrange this if we establish a rough proportion between the total shelf space available and the number of books we have in each class. Suppose the total capacity of the library is 6,000 volumes, and we have 1,000 to start with. We put together on the shelves all the books belonging to the first main class, then leave five times the space they occupy vacant before the second main class commences, and so throughout the other classes. This is a rough and ready way of disposing the books on the shelves, approximately in the position they will finally occupy, before the main business of classifying them is begun. The same principle may be applied to divisions within the classes.

VI Signposting the Library

In order that the reader may find his way about the library as easily as possible, *class-guides*, *bay* (*or tier*) *guides* and *shelf-guides* are needed. A *class-guide* indicates the general class or subject to which a section of shelving is devoted, and

may take the form of a neat framed title, giving the class-number and subject of the section, as 600 APPLIED SCIENCE. A *bay guide* indicates the subject of a vertical section of shelving. *Shelf-guides* indicate minor subdivisions and about one per shelf may be needed. The shelf-guide indicates the class-number and subject which begins at the point where it is placed (e.g. 550 *Geology*). Shelf-guides must be movable, as the position of books on the shelves alters as new books are added. A neat and useful type consists of a flat metal plate resting on the shelf with a panel bent over at right angles so as to lie along the shelf-edge. In this panel the shelf-label is inserted, covered with a celluloid strip to protect it from dust and dirt. Labels (Dewey) may be purchased ready printed, but it is more satisfactory to get one's own labels written within the school by someone who can do effective lettering. Types of shelf-guide which have to be fastened with a pin under the shelf are to be avoided.

VII The Shelf-List

As books are classified a shelf-list must be constructed, giving a list of the books in the order in which they appear on the shelves. This is necessary for stock-taking. As the shelf-list is a form of catalogue, it will be dealt with in the section on the catalogue (see p. 75).

A · THE MAIN CLASSES

000 GENERAL
100 PHILOSOPHY
200 RELIGION
300 SOCIAL SCIENCE
400 LANGUAGE
500 SCIENCE
600 APPLIED SCIENCE
700 ART AND RECREATION
800 LITERATURE
900 HISTORY, TRAVEL, BIOGRAPHY

B · THE 100 DIVISIONS

000 GENERAL WORKS
010 *Bibliography*
020 *Library Economy*
030 *General Cyclopaedias*
040 *General Collected Essays*
050 *General Periodicals*
060 *General Societies: Museums*
070 *Journalism: Newspapers*
080 *Special Libraries*
090 *Book Rarities*
100 PHILOSOPHY
110 *Metaphysics*
120 *Special Metaphysical Topics*
130 *Mind and Body*
140 *Philosophical Systems*
150 *Psychology*
160 *Logic*
170 *Ethics*
180 *Ancient Philosophers*
190 *Modern Philosophers*
200 RELIGION
210 *Natural Theology*
220 *Bible*
230 *Theology: Doctrine*
240 *Devotional*
250 *Pastoral*
260 *Church: Institutions* } *Christian*
270 *History of the Church*
280 *Churches and Sects*
290 *Non-Christian Religions*
300 SOCIAL SCIENCE
310 *Statistics*
320 *Politics*
330 *Economics*
340 *Law*
350 *Administration*
360 *Associations and Institutions*
370 *Education*
380 *Commerce and Communications*
390 *Customs. Costumes. Folklore*
400 LANGUAGE
410 *Comparative Philology*
420 *English*
430 *German*
440 *French*
450 *Italian*
460 *Spanish*
470 *Latin*
480 *Greek*
490 *Other Languages*
500 SCIENCE
510 *Mathematics*
520 *Astronomy*
530 *Physics*
540 *Chemistry*
550 *Geology*
560 *Palaeontology*
570 *Biology. Anthropology*
580 *Botany*
590 *Zoology*
600 APPLIED SCIENCE
610 *Medicine*
620 *Engineering*
630 *Agriculture*
640 *Home Economics*
650 *Business*
660 *Chemical Technology*
670 *Manufactures*
680 *Mechanic Trades*
690 *Building*

700 ART. RECREATION
710 *Landscape and Civic Art*
720 *Architecture*
730 *Sculpture*
740 *Drawing. Decoration. Design*
750 *Painting*
760 *Engraving*
770 *Photography*
780 *Music*
790 *Amusements*
800 LITERATURE
810 *American*
820 *English*
830 *German*
840 *French*
850 *Italian*
860 *Spanish*
870 *Latin*
880 *Greek*
890 *Other Literatures*
900 HISTORY
910 *Geography. Travel*
920 *Biography*
930 *Ancient History*
940 *Europe*
950 *Asia*
960 *Africa*
970 *North America*
980 *South America*
990 *Oceania*
Australia
Polar Regions
Modern History

Example of the Working Out of a Division in Sections

530 PHYSICS
531 *Mechanics*
532 *Liquids* (*Hydrostatics*)
533 *Gases*
534 *Sound*
535 *Light*
536 *Heat*
537 *Electricity*
538 *Magnetism*
539 *Molecular Physics*

Example of the Working Out of a Section in Sub-Sections

(630 Agriculture)
631 *THE FARM*
631·1 *Farm Economics*
631·2 *Farm Buildings*
631·3 *Farm Machinery*
631·4 *Land, Soil*
631·5 *Farm Operations*
631·6 *Drainage*
631·7 *Irrigation*
631·8 *Fertilizers*
631·9 *Climate*

The Common Subdivisions (indicating various standpoints from which a subject may be considered).

01 *Philosophy: General Principles*
02 *Handbooks. Textbooks*
03 *Dictionaries*
04 *Essays. Lectures*
05 *Periodicals. Annuals*
06 *Associations. Societies*
07 *Study and Teaching*
08 *Collections of Material*
09 *History*

Application of the Common Subdivisions

201 *Philosophy of Religion*
209 *History of Religion*
303 *Dictionary of Social Science*
510·1 *Principles of Mathematics*
510·6 *Mathematical Societies*
510·7 *Teaching of Mathematics*

320·3 *Dictionary of Politics*
304 *Essays on Social Science*
905 *Periodical on History*
701 *Theory of Art. Aesthetics*

550·2 *Textbook of Geology*
537·04 *Lectures on Electricity*
631·102 *Handbook on Farm Economics*

Language Numbers

(applied to classes 400 and 800)
2 *English*
3 *German*
4 *French*
5 *Italian*
6 *Spanish*
7 *Latin*
8 *Greek*
9 *Other Languages*

Applied as follows:
430 *German Language*
830 *German Literature*
470 *Latin Language*
880 *Greek Literature*
433 *German Dictionary*
475 *Latin Grammar*
420 *English Language*
820 *English Literature*
822 *English Plays*

Geographical Numbers

(used especially in class 900)
4 *Europe*
5 *Asia*
6 *Africa*
7 *North America*
8 *South America*
9 *Oceania, Polar Regions, etc.*

Applied as follows:
940 *History of Europe*
942 *History of England*
973 *History of U.S.A.*
910 *General Travel*
914 *Travel in Europe*
914·2 *Travel in England*
917·3 *Travel in U.S.A.*

Bliss: Bibliographical Classification: General View of the Scheme

THE MAIN CLASSES

I Anterior Numeral Classes

1–9 *Various collections of special material*

II Main Subject Classes

A *Philosophy and General Science, including Logic, Mathematics, Statistics*
B *Physics, including Applied Physics*
C *Chemistry, including Chemical Technology and Industries. General and Physical*
D *Astronomy, Geology, Geography and Natural History*
E *Biology*
F *Botany, including Bacteriology*
G *Zoology, including Economic Zoology*
H *Anthropology, including Medicine, Hygiene, Physical Training, Recreation*

I *Psychology*
J *Education, including Educational Psychology*
K *Social Sciences*
L *History, Social, Political, Economic (Ancient, Mediaeval and General Modern), including Historical and Political Geography*
M *Europe*
N *America* } *History and Political Geography*
O *Rest of World*
P *Religion, Theology, Ethics*
Q *Applied Social Science and Ethics (e.g. Social Welfare, Housing, Treatment of Crime)*
R *Political Science; Practical Politics*
S *Jurisprudence and Law*
T *Economics*
U *Arts: Useful and Industrial*
V *Fine Arts; Arts of Expression, Recreation, Pastime*
W *Philology; Languages and Literatures other than Indo-European*
X *Indo-European Languages and Literatures*
Y *English Language and Literature. General Literature*
Z *Bibliography. Libraries*

III Example of Divisions in Main Class

M *History of Europe*
MA *General History of Europe*
MB *Mediaeval History of Europe*
MC *Modern History of Europe*
MD *Recent History of Europe*
ME *Ecclesiastical History of Europe*
MF *Italy*
MG *Germany, General*
MH *Germany, by Periods*
MI *Germany, by States or Areas*
MJ *Switzerland*
MK *Austria, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland*
ML *Hungary*
MM *South-Eastern Europe*
MN *Russia*
MO *Northern Europe*
MP *Netherlands*
MQ *Spain*
MR, MS, MT, *France (as with Germany)*
MU *Great Britain, British Empire, England*
MV *England, Periods*
MW *England, Places. Wales*
MX *Scotland*
MY *Ireland*

Systematic Schedules

e.g. 2 *for geographical subdivision;* 3 *for historical subdivision;* 4, 5 *for philological subdivision (etc.)*

As applied (schedule 3)

MN *Russia: History & Political Geography*
MNA ,, *Large-scale History*
MNB ,, *Political History*
MNI *Russia: Intellectual History*
MNJ ,, *Societies & Institutions*
MNK ,, *Ecclesiastical History*

MNC	,,	*Constitutional History*	MNM	,,	*Military History*
MND	,,	*Diplomatic History*	MNN	,,	*Naval History*
MNE	,,	*Economic History*	MNP–MNV		*History by Periods*
MNF	,,	*Financial History*	MNW	,,	*Local History*
MNG	,,	*Colonial History*	MNX	,,	*Pamphlets*
MNH	,,	*Social History*	MNY	,,	*Other special material*

Similarly, with MQ (Spain)

MQA *Full-size History of Spain*
MQB *Political History of Spain*
MQC *Constitutional History of Spain* (and so on)

D . CATALOGUING

1 The Catalogue: What it is

THERE are several questions which a reader may ask in exploring the resources of a library: (i) What books *by a certain author* are there in the library? (ii) Is a book *with a certain title* in the library? (iii) What books has the library *on a certain subject?*

A catalogue is a list of the contents of the library. The first of the above questions is answered by an *author catalogue*, the second by a *title catalogue*, and the third by a *subject catalogue* or by a *classified catalogue*.

2 Classifying and Cataloguing

It is important to understand clearly the difference between classifying and cataloguing. Classifying, as has been explained, is the process of arranging books according to subject, by whatever scheme is chosen. We may classify by Dewey, or by Bliss. Cataloguing is the compiling of a list of the books in the library which will answer one or more of the questions given above.

Classification provides the most convenient way of exploring the contents of the library by actual inspection of the books on the shelves. The catalogue supplements this in various ways. (*a*) It answers some questions, (i) and (ii) above, which the classification does not answer. (*b*) It records *all* books,

and so a book will not be overlooked because it is out. (*c*) A book dealing with a number of topics (Lilienthal's *T.V.A.*, for instance) can only be put in one place on the shelves, but it can be recorded in the catalogue under each topic (see p. 75).

Thus it will be seen that some form of catalogue is indispensable as a supplement to classification, if the resources of the library are to be fully available.

3 Catalogue Entries

There are three essential elements in a catalogue entry: (i) Heading; (ii) Description; (iii) Location.

i The *heading* settles the order of the entry. In the case of the author catalogue this consists of the surname of the author, followed by his Christian names (or initials); in the subject catalogue, of the name of the subject; in the title catalogue, of the title of the book. In all these cases the entries follow one another in alphabetical order. In the classified catalogue the heading consists of the class-symbol (i.e. class number or letter, followed by initial of author's surname), and is arranged in the order of the classification itself. The separate problems of the different types of catalogue are mainly concerned with the choice of heading, so we will leave the discussion of this to our treatment of the types of catalogue.

ii The *description* of the book consists of (*a*) Title; (*b*) Imprint; (*c*) Collation, and, if desired, (*d*) Notes. In what follows we shall take as basis the 'Anglo-American Code'; we shall later discuss how full entries should be in a school library (see p. 70).

(*a*) The *title* is taken from the title-page, not from the spine or cover. If it is long, it may be judiciously shortened, omitted matter being represented by three dots. (*b*) The *imprint* is a statement of the place of publication, name of publisher, and date. It is common to omit place if this is London. Date may be given on title-page, but it may be elsewhere, very often on the verso (back) of the title-page. Sometimes, by an in-

defensible practice, it is omitted. If this is so, find out as nearly as you can the date, and put the date as guessed: ?1930, or ?193–. (*c*) The *collation* is a statement of the physical form of the book, and includes: number of pages (or of volumes, if work is in more than one volume); illustrations, maps, etc.; size. Paging of preliminary matter is often represented in Roman numerals (e.g. pp. viii, 320). Size is usually given by height of pages in inches or centimetres, e.g. a crown octavo book is 7¼ inches. Width of pages need not be given unless the book is of unusual shape. (*d*) *Notes* are sometimes added. These may be (1) a statement that the book belongs to a series (e.g. '*Britain in Pictures*'); (2) a note of the scope of a book if this is not evident from the title; (3) a judgment of the value of a book; (4) any fact of importance about the particular copy (e.g. that it is signed by the author, or that it is No. 69 of a limited edition).

iii A statement of the *location* of the book in the library. This is simply the call-symbol, and it is accepted practice to put it at the left-hand top corner of the entry, level with the heading.

4 Author Catalogue

This form of catalogue answers the question: What books has the library by so-and-so? The entries are arranged in order of the authors' names, used as headings, and the main problems in the construction of the author catalogue are concerned with the heading. They concern (*a*) alphabetical order; (*b*) changed names; (*c*) titles; (*d*) anonymous and pseudonymous books; (*e*) books by more than one author; (*f*) books produced by 'corporate authorship' (e.g. Government publications, publications of Societies and Institutions). For full treatment the Joint Code itself must be consulted. A summary is given in Sharp's *Cataloguing*, with an important abridged Code of Rules (pp. 3–7), the subject as a whole being dealt with in four chapters 'Rules for the Main Entry' (pp. 31–82),

and there are excellent chapters in M. S. Taylor's *Handbook of Classification and Cataloguing* (pp. 59–89). Here we must confine ourselves to the barest minimum.

a · *Alphabetical order.* Note that names beginning with Mac, Mc, M' are all treated as if spelled in full Mac. (Thus McInnes comes before Mackintosh.) The same principle is applied to names preceded by St. or S. which are treated as if written out Saint. With *prefixes* like de, de la, von, the rule is more complicated. Usually enter the name under the word following the prefix (e.g. Arnim, not von Arnim, Champaigne, not de Champaigne). But treat the prefix as part of the name (i) if they are written as a single word (e.g. Delisle); (ii) in English and American names (e.g. de la Mare); (iii) with French names containing the article (e.g. La Fontaine, Desportes); (iv) with Spanish and Italian names if they begin with the article. *Compound surnames* (with hyphen) are treated as single words (e.g. Talbot-Booth); but unhyphenated names (e.g. Rider Haggard) are entered only under the last name (Haggard), though it is well to insert an 'added entry' under the first name referring to the name used.

b · *Changed names.* Enter under the best-known name, with an added entry under the other (e.g. Elizabeth Barrett Browning under Browning, rather than under Barrett; but there should be an added entry under Barrett referring to Browning).

c · *Titles.* Enter under best-known name (e.g. Buchan, not Tweedsmuir; Bacon, not St. Albans; Lytton, not Bulwer or Bulwer-Lytton). This is the American rule; the British is always to use the family name, with added entry under the title.

d · *Anonymous Books.* Enter under author's name if known, otherwise under title of book. *Pseudonymous Books.* Enter under best-known name (e.g. Brontë, rather than Bell). British rule is always to enter under real name.

e · Books by more than one author. If there are two authors, enter under both, with an added entry under the second; if there are more than two, enter under author named first, with the words 'and others', with added entries for each of the other authors.

f · Corporate Authorship. (i) *Government and other official Publications.* Enter these under name of country, county, town, etc., concerned, followed by name of ministry or department (e.g. Great Britain, Ministry of Education; Watford, Urban District Council), responsible for publication of the book. (ii) *National Societies*, under name of Society (e.g. Royal Historical Society). (iii) *Local Institutions*, usually under name of place, followed by name of institution; but the rules are rather complicated—see Sharp, *Cataloguing* (pp. 66–70).

We may also add: *Bible.* Here enter under word *Bible*, followed where necessary by Old (or New) Testament or by name of book (arranged in the order in which they occur in the Bible). (e.g. Bible. Old Testament; Bible. Isaiah.)

5 Subject Catalogue

In this case, as the catalogue is designed to answer the question 'What books has the library on such-and-such a subject?' the headings will be names of subjects, arranged in alphabetical order. Thus successive headings may be: Armada, Armour, Army, Arsenic.

The chief problem is the choice of the appropriate word or phrase as heading. As a general principle, the most specific or precise heading should be chosen (e.g. Opera, not Music). A title easily understood (if it is accurate) is preferable to a learned or unfamiliar one (e.g. Birds, not Ornithology). But the choice of headings is difficult. It is easy to forget what titles have been used for previous entries and to use another one, and so material essentially similar may be scattered (e.g. Explorers, Exploration, Discovery, Travel, Voyages and so

on). Some list of headings to which reference may be made is indispensable. For this purpose it is possible to use the printed subject catalogues which some libraries publish; or perhaps the headings of an encyclopaedia may be used. To be strongly recommended is M. E. Sears's *List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries* (H. W. Wilson Co.), 5th edition 1944. *

If we put ourselves in the position of a user of the library consulting the subject catalogue in order to find out what material the library has on a subject in which he is interested, we shall see he is presented with two problems: first, to know under which of the headings possible the material is listed; second, to know what other similar material the library has. To meet these difficulties the librarian must provide (*a*) references from all the likely alternative headings to the one he has decided to use (e.g. there should be a reference under Ornithology: *Ornithology: see Birds*). We may call these references from the rejected titles to the selected one 'See' references. (*b*) references to allied topics on which the library has material. Thus under Books useful material may be found under Book-binding, Printing, Publishing, Manuscripts and so on. To call attention to these parallel topics the librarian should provide, at the beginning (or end) of the entries under the heading *Books*, an entry mentioning the other similar subjects on which the library has material. It will run: *Books: see also Book-binding* and so on. Such a reference to parallel topics we may call a 'See-also' reference. One valuable form of 'See-also' reference is that from a main subject to its branches, e.g. from Archaeology to Old Stone Age, New Stone Age, Bronze Age, and so on. Sears's book gives many suggested cross-references of the type described.

6 Title Catalogue

Perhaps this hardly exists as a separate catalogue; but for certain types of book it is well worth while making a list of

titles. The books concerned are those better known by their titles than by their authors, especially plays.

7 The Dictionary Catalogue

The Author and Subject Catalogues, and if desired the title entries, may be brought into a single alphabetical sequence, to form in fact a single author-subject-(title) catalogue. This is called a Dictionary Catalogue, and has one great advantage, that of bringing together in the catalogue works *by* and *about* a writer (e.g. under *Byron* will come his own writings, lives of him, and critical studies of his work).

8 Classified Catalogue

In this catalogue entries are made under the class-symbol and so follow one another in the order of the classification itself. We will illustrate its character, using Dewey's scheme. At the head of the class Physics there will be an entry 530 *Physics* with a short list of the contents of the class (i.e. the branches of physics, with their class-numbers). Then follow the actual entries arranged by class-number, and, within that, by author. Thus we shall have 530·1 all the books on the general principles (or 'philosophy') of Physics, arranged alphabetically in order of author. Then follow 530·2 Textbooks, similarly arranged; 530·3 Dictionaries of physics; 530·4 Essays on physics. Further on, we get 531 Dynamics, 533 Physics of gases, 534 Sound, 535 Light. We have, therefore, all the books on physics listed together in the catalogue, and do not have to look up separate entries for its different branches.

If we put ourselves in the position of a person consulting this catalogue, it is obvious that unless we know the system of classification very well indeed, we shall need some guidance in finding our way to the appropriate part for our purpose. For this we need a list of subjects, with the corresponding class-numbers. The index to the classification scheme will serve very well as such a list. This list should of course include

alternative titles of subjects (those covered by the '*see*' references of the subject catalogue). Once the reader has found from this list the class-number of the subject in which he is interested, he will find its material grouped ready for him. Here again he may need to consult allied topics which the classification scheme has not brought together (e.g. in Dewey, chemistry and industrial applications). In this case the classified catalogue, like the subject catalogue, requires its 'see-also' references, which here take the form of a simple reference to another class-number, under which the desired material will be found ('540 Chemistry see also 660 Chemical Technology').

In both the subject and classified catalogues books dealing with more than one topic can be listed under each. Thus in the case of Lilienthal's *T.V.A.* it can appear in the catalogue under each of the various subjects on which it touches.

9 *Choice of Catalogue*

It is generally held that some form of author catalogue is essential. It is on the whole the easiest to construct. But most would agree that the more valuable kind of catalogue is one which provides a key to the subject matter of the library. We will sum up the case for and against the 'Subject' (or 'Dictionary') and the 'Classified' catalogues.

The subject catalogue arranges the material in a familiar alphabetical order. This makes it quite easy to find *something* on the subject in question, if it is listed in the catalogue; but it is not at all easy for the reader to make sure he has not missed important material scattered over the alphabet. At best, if the system of cross-references is thoroughly carried out, so that little escapes its net, the process of tracking it down is far more laborious than if it were already largely concentrated, as it would be in the classified catalogue.

It seems therefore a fair judgment to say that whereas a subject catalogue gives *some* result, a classified catalogue is a

far better tool, provided that the reader has some familiarity with the system of classification. Now this is precisely one of the things which library instruction in a school is in a position to secure (see p. 101); and therefore we would say that for a school where training is given in the intelligent use of the library, the classified catalogue is the one to choose.

We therefore conclude that the minimum catalogue provision for a library is (1) 'Author' catalogue; (2) 'Subject' or 'Classified' catalogue, with a definite preference for the latter. A 'Classified' catalogue will need further to be supplemented with a subject list. For this the subject-index of the classification scheme in use will serve, if it is bound separately. When time allows, the Author Catalogue can be supplemented with a list of titles.

10 What information should an entry include?

In describing the contents of an entry (see p. 63) we followed the Anglo-American Code, and summarized the detail required by it. Many school librarians probably feel that such an entry is unnecessarily full, and being overloaded with detail may prove confusing rather than helpful.

We ask, 'Why does the Code consider such detail useful (or essential)?' The answer is, that it does enable us to form a fairly good conception of a book, its size, scope, and appropriateness for our purpose. It is obviously helpful for us to know that a book was published at a certain date, that it has so many pages, that it is illustrated—and so on. I feel personally that all the details prescribed are useful, with the possible exception of the name of publisher (and this too is sometimes helpful to a reader). One of the subjects for instruction in a library period is the use of the catalogue, and it is possible in this way to encourage an intelligent and critical use of the catalogue. If, however, it is desired to shorten the entry, what details (in the description) should be retained? Certainly the title, date, paging, and note of illustrations.

It may be urged indeed that the entry in the 'Author' catalogue need not be a full one, for if the reader knows the author's name, he is probably not so much concerned to know details of the book, and so a short entry, with the minimum of information needed for identification of the book is all that is required. Those, however, who are consulting the 'Subject' or 'Classified' catalogues desire to know as much about each book mentioned in them as possible, and so there is a strong case here for the full entry.

11 Lay-out of Entries

For the moment we will take it that the catalogue is on cards. It is worthwhile to work to a definite pattern in planning the lay-out of entries, so that the reader always finds the information presented in the same order. For this purpose a most excellent guide to good practice is James Ormerod's *Style in Card Cataloguing* (3rd edition 1939). This little book states the rules concisely, and illustrates with examples all the varieties of lay-out likely to be met with.

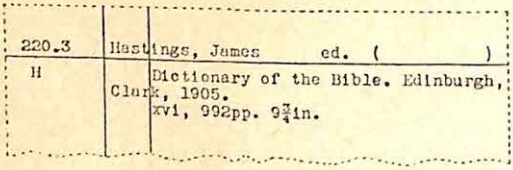
Cards may be purchased ruled horizontally, with two vertical lines parallel with the left side. In the 'Author' catalogue the heading is written or typed on the top line beginning with the left hand vertical line; to the left of this line is placed the call-symbol (class-number and author's initial). The description is laid out in 'paragraphs'—first, title and imprint, second, collation. The first line of each is indented, i.e. commenced at the second vertical line. In each of these 'paragraphs' the lines after the first start at the first vertical line. Notes, and list of contents, follow, when used, as separate paragraphs. One or two examples will make the plan clear.

A subject entry is constructed on the same pattern, but here the heading (name of the subject) on the top line is indented, and the rest of the entry (author's name, description, etc.) is as with the author entry, but moved down a line.

Examples of Catalogue Entries

1 Hastings, *Dictionary of the Bible*

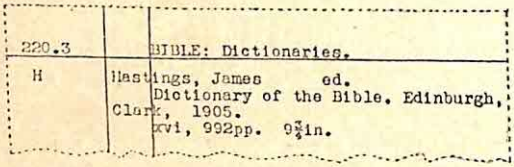
a · Author entry



220.3	Hastings, James ed. ( )
H	Dictionary of the Bible. Edinburgh, Clark, 1905. xvi, 992pp. 9¾in.

Call-symbol. Author Title. Imprint. Collation.

b · Subject entry

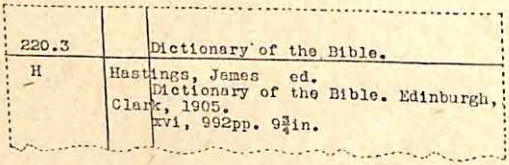


220.3	BIBLE: Dictionaries.
H	Hastings, James ed. Dictionary of the Bible. Edinburgh, Clark, 1905. xvi, 992pp. 9¾in.

Call-symbol. Subject-heading. Author. Title. Imprint. Collation.

c · Entry in Classified Catalogue: exactly like Author entry, but filed in order of call-symbol, not of author's name.

d · Title entry

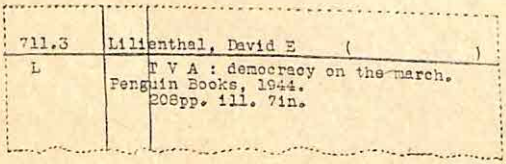


220.3	Dictionary of the Bible.
H	Hastings, James ed. Dictionary of the Bible. Edinburgh, Clark, 1905. xvi, 992pp. 9¾in.

Call-symbol. Title. Author. Title. Imprint. Collation.

2 Lilienthal, *T.V.A.*

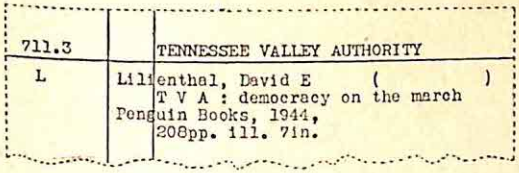
a · Author entry



711.3	Lilienthal, David E ( )
L	T V A : democracy on the march. Penguin Books, 1944. 208pp. ill. 7in.

Call-symbol. Author Title. Imprint. Collation.

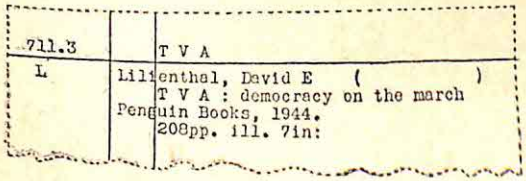
b · Subject entry



711.3		TENNESSEE VALLEY AUTHORITY
L	Lilienthal, David E ( ) T V A : democracy on the march Penguin Books, 1944, 208pp. ill. 7in.	

Call-symbol. Subject.
Author.
Title. Imprint.
Collation.

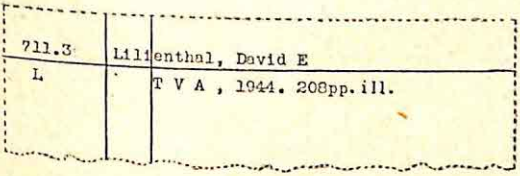
c · Title entry



711.3		T V A
L	Lilienthal, David E ( ) T V A : democracy on the march Penguin Books, 1944. 208pp. ill. 7in:	

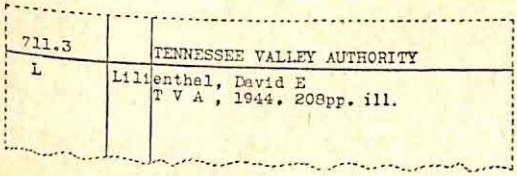
Call-symbol. Title.
Author.
Title. Imprint.
Collation.

3 Suggested shorter form of catalogue entries for use in small libraries.



711.3	Lilienthal, David E	
L	T V A , 1944. 208pp. ill.	

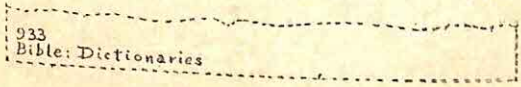
Call-symbol. Author.
Title. Collation.



711.3		TENNESSEE VALLEY AUTHORITY
L	Lilienthal, David E T V A , 1944. 208pp. ill.	

Call-symbol. Subject.
Author.
Title. Collation.

Tracings · On the back of each author card should be entered (*a*) accession number; (*b*) heading of other cards (whether subject or analytical). They should be written close to the top, and upside down, so that they may easily be read without removing the card.



933
Bible: Dictionaries

12 Format of the Catalogue

The catalogue may be contained in a bound book, in a loose-leaf book (the 'sheaf catalogue') or on cards. *Bound Book.* Its advantages are that it is easier to consult, as a number of entries can be seen at once on a page, and the book-form is convenient to handle. Its disadvantage is that it is impossible to calculate how much room should be left between entries to accommodate new entries. *The Sheaf Catalogue* may include several entries on a page, but it is probably wiser to restrict entries to one a page. Its advantages are the ease with which entries may be added or withdrawn, and its convenient book-form. *The Card Catalogue.* Most catalogues now are probably on cards. Here again, entries can be added or removed without trouble, but cards are awkward to handle. If the card form is chosen, cards of medium weight should be bought, and they should be of the best material available; economy is penny-wise. The standard size is 3 × 5 inches. Guide cards (cards provided with projecting tabs, to mark alphabetical position or class-number) should be inserted at frequent intervals (e.g. every fifty or one hundred cards); they greatly increase the ease and speed with which individual entries can be found (see p. 22).

13 Constructing the Catalogue

It is common practice to treat the author catalogue as the primary catalogue and to make the main entries in it. The author catalogue is the least difficult to construct. On the other hand, supposing it is decided to use the full form of entry in only one catalogue, and the shorter entry in the other, it is clear that the full entry is most useful with the subject or classified catalogues. If we then decide to use the short entry in the author catalogue and the full form in the subject or classified catalogue, procedure will be as follows. Take in turn each entry in the accession book (p. 34) or any other complete record of the library, and make an author

card for the book in question, and treat this (even in shortened form) as the main entry. (Where a book consists of two or more works bound together, a card must be made for each; and the same applies where the book is by two or more authors.) As each author entry is completed, consider whether a subject entry is required (many books do not need one); if so, make it. On the back of the author entry mention the subject entry made, so that if the book is lost or withdrawn all relevant entries in the catalogue may be taken out. (These notes of subject entries on the author card are called 'Tracings'.) Likewise write on the back of the subject entry the name of the author under whom the book is catalogued. If the book deals with more subjects than one, make a card for each subject, as would be done with the book on *T.V.A.* mentioned above. These 'added entries' are particularly important with collections of miscellaneous essays, and as they analyse the contents of the volume, they are often called analytical entries, or simply *analytics*. The provision of these additional entries is one of the most important ways in which the catalogue can supplement the classification (see p. 62).

Subject entries are not usually thought necessary for works of imagination, as poetry, drama, fiction, but I think there is a good deal to be said in a school library for including in the subject catalogue references to historical or topographical fiction, if the entries clearly mark them as such.

As each book is catalogued, this should be indicated in the accession book by a tick or other mark, e.g. A (author), S (subject). In this way the librarian can tell at a glance what books are catalogued and what remain to be done. Once the existing stock has been catalogued, accessions will be catalogued before they are put on the shelves.

14 The Shelf-List

This is a form of catalogue for the use of the librarian and his helpers rather than for the general user of the library.

It is a list of the books in the order in which they are placed on the shelves, and is used for stocktaking. The necessary details are (1) class-number; (2) author (surname only); (3) short title (as it appears on the spine of the book); (4) accession number (this may be omitted, but it enables the book to be traced rapidly in case of enquiry); (5) a number of blank ruled columns, for use in checking over the library (see p. 82).

15 Format and Construction of the Shelf-List

The shelf-list should be in the form of a loose-leaf book; a good format is that of the *Sheaf Catalogue*. A useful size is $7\frac{3}{4} \times 4$ inches, in a holder containing 500 or 600 thin but tough slips. Not more than five or six entries should be made on each page, space being left between each entry for additions. As soon as a slip becomes crowded it should be re-written on new slips.

If a shelf-list is being made for an existing library, it is probably best to make first a rough list from the books on the shelves, after they have been classified and put in their right order. A shelf-list cannot in any case be constructed until the books are classified. As it is needed for stocktaking, it should be first priority in the work of organization. On its use in stocktaking, see p. 83.

The shelf-list is, within limits, a classified catalogue. It is not a complete one, as (i) it only contains the barest detail, and (ii) it does not include any cross-references. But it may be used for the time being as a substitute for the classified catalogue.

E · CHARGING SYSTEMS · Methods of Issue and Recall

THE purpose of a charging system (i.e. a system designed to control the issue and recall of books) is to record the issue of each book taken out of the library and to check its return. This is effected by connecting in one way or another the name

of the borrower with the name of the book. On the general question of lending books for reading at home, see pp. 100, 113.

The following methods are in use:

1 Borrowers' Register. A register or note-book is used, ruled in vertical columns for date of issue; form or class and name of borrower; author; title (or accession number) of book; date of return. *Method of Issue:* The librarian in charge (or the borrower) enters the book on the next vacant line in the register. *Return:* The entry is cancelled, either simply by entering date of return or in any other way preferred.

2 Bookslips. Bookslips are used, a convenient size being 5 × 3 inches. On each slip there are spaces to be filled in for author; title; accession number; borrower's class and name; date of issue. *Method of Issue:* The borrower fills in the slip and hands it to the librarian or posts it in a box. At the end of the day the slips are filed, preferably in order of author (on this see later, p. 81). *Return:* The slip is withdrawn from the file, cancelled, and either handed to the borrower or kept and filed for record.

3 Book-Pocket, Book-Card and Reader's Ticket. Within the back cover of each book is fastened a small pocket, to hold a 'Book-Card' (about 1½ × 3 inches), at the head of which is written the author, title, accession number and class-symbol of the book. Each reader is provided with one or more 'Reader's Tickets', in the form of small pockets designed to hold the book-card when the book is issued. *Method of Issue:* The borrower brings his reader's ticket to the librarian, together with the book he wishes to take out of the library. The librarian takes the book-card from the book, and slips it in the reader's ticket, and files them together in a narrow tray. *Return:* The book is brought back; the reader's ticket, with the book-card, is taken from the tray; the book-card is replaced in the book and the ticket returned to the reader.

4 Book-pocket and Book-card. Each book is provided with a book-pocket as in (3), and with a book-card. In this case the book-card is larger (a common size is 3 × 5 inches). It is headed with name of author, title, accession number of the book and class-number, but the greater part of the card is ruled front and back in vertical columns for date (preferably the date when the book is due to be returned), class, borrower's name. *Method of Issue:* The borrower takes the card out of the book, fills it in on the next vacant line, and hands it to the librarian, or posts it as in (2). The card is then filed. *Return:* The card is withdrawn from the file and replaced in the book.

It will be seen that in methods (3) and (4) every book while in the library should have its card in place; every book out of the library should be without a card.

Choice of System · Notes on these Methods

We will set out briefly the advantages and disadvantages of each of the systems mentioned from the point of view of the school librarian. In considering them from the point of view of a particular school it is worth while to keep in mind certain factors which will affect decision. We will put them in the form of questions. (1) Are books to be taken out at any time, or only when the librarian or his representative is present? (2) Are issues likely to be heavy? (3) Are books likely to be taken out and returned mainly at certain definite times, so that a great many issues have to be dealt with in a short time? (4) Is it desired to keep a permanent record of issues (e.g. for records of reading and statistics)? The answers to these questions will go far towards deciding the best charging system for a particular school.

1 Register. This is the oldest method, and was certainly in use in the Middle Ages. Its chief advantages are: (*a*) it is simple and needs no special apparatus; and it is cheap. (*b*) It involves no filing, and can be used independently of the

librarian's presence. On the other hand, (*a*) where issues are heavy, and above all where issues and returns are concentrated in short periods, it acts as a bottle-neck and seriously impedes the process of issue and return; (*b*) entries made hastily tend to be illegible; (*c*) it often takes a long time to trace an issue when a book is returned (though this can be overcome by the use of date-slips, see p. 82).

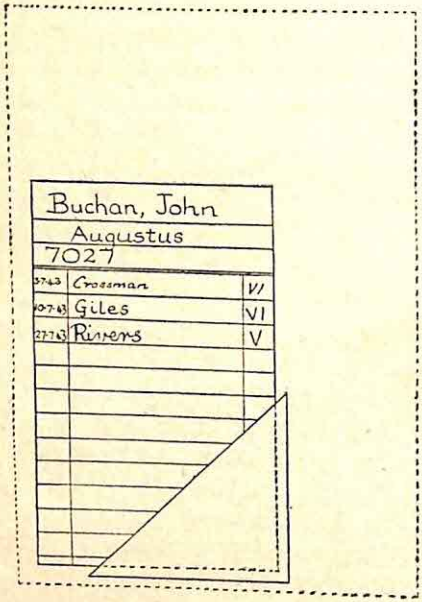
It is therefore most suitable for small libraries and libraries where borrowing is not heavy or concentrated. It is definitely troublesome if a great deal of issuing and returning of books takes place in the lunch-hour, or immediately after school.

2 Book slips. This is a method well-established in university libraries. Its advantages are: (*a*) as each borrower fills up his own slip, and no attendance is necessary at the charging desk except to hand over or post the slip, there is the minimum possible congestion however many issues are dealt with; (*b*) if the slips are preserved for record, they can be filed to bring out whatever information is most required. But (*a*) the manipulation of the slips in filing (especially if they are thin or flimsy) is awkward; (*b*) younger users may find the filling in of detail confusing; (*c*) hurried borrowers may be tempted to take books out without record rather than fill in the details; (*d*) it may be felt that the system is expensive if issues are large (though slips can be printed easily and cheaply by a school Printing Society).

3 Book-Pocket, Book-Card and Reader's Ticket. This is the familiar method generally employed in public libraries. Its great advantage is: its simplicity and rapidity of operation; no writing is done by either borrower or librarian. Its disadvantages are: (*a*) it requires the presence of the librarian (at least I know of no case where this is not so, though it seems theoretically possible); (*b*) it leaves no permanent record of the transaction; (*c*) it limits books issued to number of

tickets held (though of course there is nothing to prevent a reader being allowed as many tickets as he desires).

4 Book-Pocket and Book-Card. The advantages are: (*a*) simplicity and rapidity of operation, the only writing to be done being that of a date, and the borrower's class



and name; (*b*) the book-card furnishes immediately on inspection a picture of the use of each book in the library; not only the number of times a book has been taken out, but the names of its readers. The system has been satisfactorily used in many schools, and it is highly praised by an anonymous (but experienced) school librarian in a short article 'A Note on Charging Systems' in the *School Librarian* for December 1943.

It will be noted that with methods (3) and (4) book-pockets and book-cards must be purchased, and with (3) readers' tickets also; and they must be made ready for use. At pre-War prices readers' tickets cost about £1 5*s*. per 1,000; book-pockets 2*s*. 9*d*. to 7*s*. 6*d*. per 1,000; book-cards, small size, about 5*s*. per 1,000; large, about 9*s*.

Filing

With methods (2), (3), (4) the book-slips or book-cards may be filed in various orders, to answer different questions. These are: 'What books are due for return on such a day?' or 'What books has so-and-so out?' or 'Who has taken out such-and-such a book?' To answer the first question, filing is done by date; the second, by borrower's name; the third, by author's name. Most school librarians will wish to use the second or third method; and of these, it is probably most useful to file by author's name. In that case, when enquiry is made for a book, it can immediately be traced. This applies whichever of the three systems is adopted.

If slips (method 2) are filed after use, for record, they may be arranged either under names of borrowers or names of authors; or they may be sorted out in a rough subject grouping. Each method provides its own type of information.

Whatever method of charging and filing is adopted, the librarian should be in a position to furnish some simple statistics of the use of the library (books borrowed), and as far as possible of the use of the different sections of the library. It is one way of showing that the money spent on it is being wisely used.

Charging Systems and the Librarian

It is worth while considering briefly how far the presence of the librarian or his assistant is necessary in the routine of issue and return of books. For method (3) the librarian's presence is necessary, it would seem, both for the issue and return of books. Methods (1), (2) and (4) do not require his

presence for issue; nor for return, provided that there is available a *returned book-shelf*, or some receptacle for returned books like the 'returned book cabinet' illustrated in Fargo, *The Library in the School*, p. 298. In dealing with returned books the librarian arranges them in method (1) in order of date of issue (from date-slip); in methods (2) (3) and (4) in alphabetical order of authors. They are then checked against the register or against the book-slips or book-cards. As each book is checked, the entry in the register is cancelled in (1), the book-slip in (2); in (3) and (4) the book-card is returned to the book.

Return of Books · Reservation · Date-Slips

Most libraries limit the period a book may be kept after issue, while allowing for its renewal. In order to remind the borrower of the date at which return is due, a *date-slip* pasted or tipped within the front cover, on which the date of return or issue) is stamped, may be used with any charging system, but it entails the presence of the librarian or his assistant at times of issue (see p. 79).

It is useful to establish, if possible, a system of book reservation. This is carried out simply with methods (2), (3), (4), if a red reservation slip, giving author and title of book, and name of reserver, is handed in (or posted). When the librarian checks through issues, he clips this to the book-slip or card of the book to be reserved. This serves as a warning that when the book in question comes back it is not to be returned to the shelves, but kept for the reserver.

F · STOCKTAKING

AT REGULAR intervals—at least once a year, and preferably every term, a stocktaking of the contents of the library is necessary. The method of stocktaking is as follows.

1 Preliminary · Ample notice is given, in the school Calendar for example; and attention to it is called in notices read out

in the school Assembly, and posted on the school and library notice-boards. All books issued are recalled by a certain day, and the library is closed.

2 Process of Stocktaking · The work is carried out by library helpers, working in pairs. Each section of the library is checked by the pair who have been responsible for it during the year (see p. 120). The first of the pair, whom we will call 'A', has the shelf-list, and sits at a table near the shelves; the second, 'B', deals with the books. 'A' calls out the author and title of each book in turn from the shelf-list; if the book is in its * place, 'B' turns it fore-edge down on the shelf, and 'A' puts a tick in the appropriate column on the shelf-list. This indicates that the book is accounted for. If the book is missing, 'A' leaves its place blank on the shelf-list, and 'B' leaves room for it at its place on the shelf. If the book turns up later, it is placed on the shelf, fore-edge down, and ticked off on the shelf-list. When the process is completed for the section, all the books checked as present will stand fore-edge down on the shelf, and ticked in the shelf-list; those missing will be represented by gaps on the shelf and will not be ticked in the shelf-list. If any books are left standing upright on the shelf, this means that either (*a*) they have been accidentally omitted in the checking, or (*b*) they were not entered on the shelf-list, or (*c*) they do not belong to the section. In each case the appropriate action is taken. When checking is complete, the books are restored to their normal position. Care should be taken not to damage the lower fore-edge corner. (If it is felt there is a likelihood of this, the books may be stood forward as they are checked, so as to project slightly over the shelf edge, instead of being turned down.)

A variation on the method described above is not to tick the shelf-list, but to use *check-sheets*. These are ruled in vertical columns, to record class-number, author, title (or accession number); and horizontally ruled to provide entries

of missing books. In this case 'A' writes names of missing books on the check-sheet, crossing off any which subsequently turn up.

3 Missing Books · Notices should be posted in the school about missing books, and a list, of the more important ones at any rate, should be published, and attention called to them in the Assembly. If losses are serious, it may be due either to a low standard of public responsibility in the school, or to the inefficient working, or even over-elaboration, of the system of issue. It is always difficult to deal with; the best guarantee perhaps, in a long-term policy, is the full establishment and working of the system of library periods, in which good citizenship can first be taught, and then be taken for granted (see p. 91). But good citizenship, no less than peace, is indivisible. If a book cannot be recovered, its loss should be noted in the accession book (see p. 35).

G · BINDING

1 The Bound Book and the Cased Book

Most books as published are *cased*, not bound. It is worth while to make clear the difference, as it has an important bearing on library binding policy. In the final stage in the making up of a book before it is provided with its covers, the sections or gatherings of the book are sewn on bands or tapes, the ends of which are left uncut and projecting an inch or two. It is these tape-ends which are used to secure the book to its cover or 'case'. When a book is *bound*, these tapes are incorporated strongly in the boards of the cover; when it is *cased*, they are merely glued or pasted on. A cased book tends to come away from the cover much more quickly than a book which is bound, and so the cased book tends, gradually, to break up. Experience of librarians has shown that the life of a bound book is about three times that of one which is cased.

2 Care of Books

One of the librarian's main preoccupations here is to get the maximum life out of the books in his charge. There are certain precautionary measures he may take:

a Binding before use · Instead of buying a book in its normal published state, the librarian may have the book *bound* before use. Some binding firms before the War were prepared to buy books required direct from the publishers in sheets, and then bind them, either in the publisher's cases or in whatever other style the librarian ordered, for a few pence above the normal retail price of the book. This method (sometimes called reinforced binding) is well worth while and strongly recommended in the case of books of more than temporary interest likely to be much used (see p. 34).

b Instruction in the proper handling of books · A cased book carefully handled will far outlast a similar book which has been carelessly treated. In the first library period of a class (see pp. 98, 101), the librarian should explain how a book is made up, how a book should be taken from the shelves (not by the top of the spine), how it should be opened, if new, and how its pages should be cut. He should call attention to common examples of bad practice and their results (e.g. stretching a book back to make it lie flat, turning a page down to mark a place, handling with dirty hands, exposing to the weather, and so on).

c Seeing that books stand upright on the shelves · Not only are books that sag sideways untidy in appearance, but a serious and continuous strain is imposed on the sewing; so books should always be kept upright on the shelves by means of book-supports (see p. 24).

d Avoidance of tight packing on the shelves · When a shelf is tightly packed, the reader is almost compelled to try to pull a book out by the top of its spine, and tear the spine in

doing so. This is one of the most familiar forms of damage to books. If books are tightly packed, the librarian is asking for trouble.

3 To Repair, to Bind, or to Discard?

Even with the best treatment, books eventually show signs of wear. The librarian should keep his eyes open for this, and remove such books from circulation. Stocktaking affords a particularly good opportunity for a thorough examination of the library.

The librarian examines each volume thus withdrawn from circulation and decides whether (*a*) to repair it in the school; (*b*) to send it to be rebound; or (*c*) to discard it.

a Repairing should be done in case of torn pages, loose plates, and minor damage to cover (see pp. 14; 121).

b Rebinding is necessary when the covers are seriously damaged, or are coming adrift from the book; when the sewing is broken, or the sections loose.

c Discarding is the right course if the book is of poor quality, if it is out of date or of purely ephemeral interest; or if the cost of rebinding is more than that of procuring a new copy; or if a new edition has been published.

4 Procedure

Unless there is a good local binder, books should be sent to a firm of repute specializing in library work. Such firms are familiar with the conditions and needs of libraries, and can give good advice. Insist on binding, not casing (this will be done automatically by any firm of the kind mentioned). Give precise instructions as to material, colour, style of lettering; and especially make clear the exact lettering required on the spine (author and title: and some libraries add the class-

symbol). Keep a duplicate copy of the list of books sent and the instructions sent with them, and record on your own list the accession number of each book. On return of books, check each book with list, and for defects. Prepare each book for issue as with new books (see p. 34). Note in accession book the fact and date of rebinding.

5 Style and Colour

Children will *not* normally choose for reading a book in a dull binding. New books, especially in bright dust-jackets, are chosen not merely because they are new, but at least as much because they seem attractive and inviting. It is therefore good policy to insist on variety of colours rather than uniformity, and light colours rather than dark. We thus avoid the spectacle of grim and forbidding rows of classical novels in semi-funereal attire. (The whole question of binding styles and their effect on the choice of books would be an interesting subject for enquiry.) In carrying out a policy of this kind, we are simply extending a step further the principle followed in seeking an attractive atmosphere in the library as a whole. *Lettering* should be pleasant to the eye, and clear; and neither fussy nor bald.

6 Cost

Before the war, an octavo volume of fiction could be well bound by a first-class firm for a few pence over two shillings; * books of a larger size cost correspondingly more. Reference books are worth the strongest and best binding available.

7 Pamphlets

A word on pamphlets and other small paper-covered books (e.g. musical miniature scores). These may be bound 'quarter-flush', i.e. with their own paper covers pasted on boards cut level with the edge of the pages.

H · PAPERS AND PERIODICALS

THE most recent book of information is out of date before it is published; and it is absolutely necessary, in a library that is alive, to bridge the gap between the world of books —the main material of the library—and the day-to-day world. No library should be without newspapers and periodicals to meet this need; and the same care and thought should be devoted to choosing them as to choosing books.

What Papers and Periodicals Should the Library Take? The answer will depend partly on the money available, partly on the needs of the school.

1 Papers · One daily paper at least should be taken, and if possible two, of different political complexions, for it is a most important part of training in democratic citizenship that a child should realize that there are very often two sides to a question, and should learn to weigh them. If only one can be afforded, a change should be rung, say, every month. But it is obviously better, where serious work is being done on current events, that more than one point of view shall be always represented. (See what is said on books, p. 104.) Where important matters of political controversy are under discussion, an attempt should be made, at any rate for the moment, to see both sides set out.

On the more general use of newspapers for information on non-political subjects, we may say in passing that a very urgent need for the lower and middle school is that of a daily paper specially designed and written for children of the eleven-twelve to sixteen age-range. It should be a paper covering all the topics represented in an adult newspaper of good standing—current events and problems, politics, economics, religion, art, sport, and so on, with special articles on subjects of particular interest to children, both boys and girls, of the ages concerned. It should certainly include reviews of

books, plays and films. It should be written seriously, and not written down; further, it should not be a commercial venture in the sense that it depends on advertisements.

2 Periodicals · These should include: (*a*) one or more of the well-established weeklies (*Spectator*, *New Statesman*, *Time and Tide*, *Manchester Guardian Weekly*, *Economist*, *Listener* —and, no doubt, *Punch*). (*b*) One or more good illustrated papers (e.g. *Illustrated London News*, *Picture Post*). These often contain important articles of great value (we may instance the archaeological articles in the *Illustrated London News*). Illustrated papers are a very real attraction, and certainly help to bring readers into the library. (*c*) Some subject periodicals (e.g. *Greece and Rome*). (*d*) Periodicals dealing with special interests, especially those of readers of school age. Such interests include, for instance, photography, stamp-collecting, farming, flying. (*e*) It is worth while to call attention to *Keesing's Contemporary Archives*, which seek to present a weekly summary of news of all sorts provided with a cumulative index, brought regularly up-to-date. This is an invaluable aid to a sixth-form group studying 'Current Events'.

3 Cost · It is suggested in the section on Finance that twenty per cent is a not unreasonable proportion of the annual income to devote to this side of library activity. This would mean, for a school of 600, on the recommended basis, about £30 a year at pre-War prices.

The possibility of obtaining some periodicals after use from friends should not be overlooked.

4 Storing of Papers and Periodicals in Use

Papers—

a Newspaper Stand · This is an inclined surface, preferably attached to the wall and not an island stand, provided with a spring rod which holds the paper in position.

b Newspaper Rack and Holder, or Prong File · The paper is gripped along its folded edge by a divided rod, provided with a loop in the centre by which it can be hung up when not in use; or it may be rested by its ends in a notched rack, the paper hanging downwards. The advantage of (*a*) is its convenience of consultation, of (*b*) its economy of space, especially where several papers are taken, or where it is desired to keep recent back numbers easily available. Again, the paper can be taken for reading anywhere in the library. There is, however, no reason why both methods should not be used in combination.

Periodicals—

i *Storage and Display* · Alternative methods are: (*a*) a series of sloping shelves with ledges, on each of which periodicals stand. These shelves may be hinged above, so that they can be raised forwards, disclosing pigeon-holes immediately behind, in which back numbers of the periodical may be stored; (*b*) a rack with narrow compartments rising backwards in tiers or steps. In these compartments the periodicals stand upright, each tier projecting a few inches above the tier in front; (*c*) a rack with narrow vertical partitions, in each of which a periodical stands, exactly like a book on the shelf. (*a*) is probably the most effective way of displaying periodicals attractively, but it requires rather more room than (*b*). (*c*) is most economical of space, but it is difficult to mark the position of periodicals within the rack easily and clearly (see p. 22).

ii *Protection in Use* · Periodicals much in use soon become ragged unless they are protected. For this purpose some form of holder or portfolio is needed. The older pattern consisted of boards covered in cloth or leather, in which the periodical was secured by a clip or cord, the name of the periodical being stamped on the cover. In the more modern type the holder is made of some transparent plastic substance. This has the great advantage of displaying the cover of the periodical itself. Furthermore a holder of this kind can be used for any

periodical of the same size; so if it is desired to discontinue one periodical the holder can be used for another.

iii *Periodicals after Use* · It may be felt worth while to bind some periodicals, such as *The Listener*, which has much material of more than temporary interest. Other magazines provide useful material for the picture or cuttings file (see p. 114); and it is worth while marking at the time each issue in which such material occurs. It is quite impossible in the ordinary library to keep long files of periodicals on the chance that they may be of use; but it is clear that they do furnish material which cannot be obtained in any other way. Perhaps it is always worth while keeping a term's issues. Periodicals not wanted may often be sold at a small charge to members of the school, and any money thus obtained devoted to the purchase of periodicals.

I · MISCELLANEOUS

Rules

Every library needs rules, but these should be the minimum consistent with efficiency. Here it will be sufficient to indicate the ground they may cover. Rules should be few, but plainly set out, and their observance enforced. Two main fields are covered: (*a*) conduct in library (conversation, eating, general behaviour); and (*b*) conditions of use (i. times at which the library is open, and to whom; ii. rules for issue and return of books; responsibility for safe keeping). Besides these rules, a list should be posted giving names of 'Library Prefects' and 'Library Helpers', and their respective duties (see p. 120).

It cannot be stressed too strongly that successful library routine does not depend on rules and their sanctions, but on establishing the right attitude and habits from the moment of entry into the school.

Book Displays

New books may be displayed either in a book-trough on one of the library tables, or, better, on one or two shelves reserved for the purpose. Book-jackets may be posted on a notice board or screen, and later in a file. Books on display may well be reserved from issue for a limited time, say a week, so that as many members of the school as possible may see them before they go into circulation (see p. 36).

Selected Books. Exhibitions may be made from time to time of small selections of books already in the library to illustrate some special subject, or a subject of topical interest, or to call attention to books of interest apparently neglected. There is not the same reason to reserve these books as there is in the case of new books.

* 4 FINANCE

WE MAY CONSIDER income and expenditure conveniently under two heads: (1) capital or initial; and (2) recurring or annual.

1 Initial Expenditure and Income

a Expenditure · The main items of expenditure are (i) furniture and equipment, and (ii) books.

i Furniture and Equipment include the standard and special shelving; tables, chairs, librarian's table or charging desk, catalogue cabinet and stand, periodical rack or stand, as well as the minor equipment mentioned in the section on '*Furniture and Fittings*'.

ii Books cover the basic stock (p. 25) needed as a nucleus for library activities.

b Income · This should be in the form of a capital or non-recurring grant. It is extremely difficult to make an estimate of probable costs. The figures given in the *Carnegie Report* (1936) for equipment were £400 and £500, for two alternative schemes. These figures covered electric-light fittings as well as the major items of equipment, but not minor equipment. The *S.L.A. Draft Report* (1943) made a tentative estimate of £300 (1938 prices) for a two-form entry school (not including lighting, which it was felt should be regarded as part of the building costs). For books, the Carnegie estimate was £250, for 800 books. The *Draft Report* advised £400, for 1,600 books.

2 Recurring Expenditure and Income

a Expenditure · The main regular expenses (apart from salaries and wages, and the cost of heating, lighting and cleaning, which may be regarded as general school expenses) are the following, information given in brackets being the approximate percentage each item bears to the total expenditure. (1) books (sixty per cent), (2) papers and periodicals (twenty per cent), (3) binding (fifteen per cent), (4) administration (five per cent). The distribution may vary somewhat from year to year; the figure for binding, for instance, will certainly be lower for the first two or three years, but afterwards may well be higher than the figure given; though this will largely depend on the extent to which the library is used and the standard of citizenship developed. The figure for periodicals may also be higher, especially in the later stages of library development.

b Income · Income may be classed as primary ('Direct Grant') and supplementary (other sources).

Direct Grant. This is a necessity; without it no systematic building up of the library or rational planning of its work is possible. This grant should be allocated to the library

specifically as such, and should never be an uncertain proportion of a general purposes fund.

Supplementary sources. While the direct grant should be on a scale adequate to maintain the library efficiently, there are additional sources of value. We may mention: (*a*) Funds from sources within the school other than direct grant. Many schools have been able to add to their income through school concerts or dramatic performances. (*b*) Gifts. In many schools the tradition has been encouraged of presenting books to the library on leaving, or giving money for the purpose. Obviously there should be no element of compulsion, moral or otherwise, but the tradition is a gracious one, and introduces a pleasant element of personal contact. A possible variation is a joint gift by a group. Gifts can be a most useful addition to the resources of the library, especially as they may often be used to obtain books of a less ordinary kind than the librarian would feel justified in purchasing out of the regular funds. The librarian should always be ready with suggestions of books required or desired, and should tactfully avoid the dumping of unwanted matter. It is a good practice to maintain a list of desired books. It is particularly satisfactory if the donor gives a book on a subject in which he is himself interested. A gift may also take the form of a subscription to a periodical; or a periodical may be passed on by a subscriber after use. In some cases a school society subscribes to a periodical and allows it to be housed in the library.

Fines (whose value is in any case very disputable) should not be regarded as a source of income.

3 Grant; Basis of Calculation and Amount

A library which is to play the part in the educational work of the school which is to be described in the next chapter cannot be maintained efficiently without cost; and if at first sight the figures suggested below seem considerable, it is

reasonable to compare the corresponding figures for the equipment and maintenance of a laboratory or engineering shop; and the library serves not one section of the community, but all alike. The library has long been called the 'laboratory of the humanities', but it is very much more than that; it is just as much an indispensable adjunct to all scientific and practical work,* while it also serves the educational and recreational needs of *all* members of the school. Finally, when the total expenditure on a school is borne in mind, it is surprising how small a proportion of it is borne by even a high library grant (about two-thirds to five-sixths of one per cent); and a very high educational return may be expected from it.

Basis of calculation of Grant · Alternative methods are a flat rate or a graduated rate. *Flat Rate per capita.* This seems at first sight a reasonable basis. But books needed for advanced courses, or their equivalents, are more expensive than the average, and this applies also, though to a lesser degree, where a School Certificate is taken. In view of these facts it has been felt by many that a more satisfactory basis would be that of the *Graduated Rate.* Here a standard rate applies to the main body of the school, with special rates for all pupils working for the School Certificate and in advanced courses.

Amount of Grant · The following figures have been suggested: *Carnegie Report* (1936): flat rate of three shillings per pupil. *S.L.A. Draft Report* (1943): either (1) flat rate of five shillings, with a small upward adjustment in the case of small schools; or (2) a graduated rate: four shillings for bulk of school; six shillings for School Certificate pupils; twelve shillings for pupils in advanced courses, again with a slight upward adjustment in the case of small schools.

* See the important paper on *The Library in the Technical College* read at the S.L.A. Annual Meeting, 1945, by Dr. H. Lowery, F.R.S., Principal of the South West Essex Technical College, and printed in the *School Librarian* for April 1945.

The figures given above work out as follows: in the case of a school with 600 pupils, of whom sixty are in advanced courses and ninety in School Certificate forms: *Carnegie*: £90; *S.L.A. Draft Report*: (1) flat rate: £150; (2) graduated rate: £153.

These figures, based on pre-War prices, will give some idea, it is hoped, of what may be considered a reasonably adequate expenditure on a library fully and effectively used.

General. It is important, in the interests of economy, that the librarian should have at his disposal some proportion of the total grant for the purchase of second-hand or ex-libris books as opportunity offers (see p. 34). This is especially so at the present time of book-shortage, when many books are temporarily or permanently out of print, and it is often impossible to secure a newly published book by order through the usual channels.

Any unexpected balance at the end of the year should remain credited to the library fund.

5 THE USES OF THE LIBRARY

THE TECHNICAL PROCESSES described above are important in securing the efficient working of the library, but they are all subordinate to its use. The aim of the librarian throughout is to help the reader to make the best use of the library and to acquire by the time he leaves school some knowledge of what books can mean to him, both for serious study and for recreation, some skill in using them, and some acquaintance with the public library system, so that both at school and afterwards in adult life he will be able to avail himself of its resources.

The librarian's responsibility therefore consists in (*a*) administering the library in such a way that its routine is efficient without being obtrusive; (*b*) making its resources of all kinds as widely available as possible and giving guidance in reading; (*c*) giving instruction in its use and organizing practical work based upon this instruction; (*d*) arranging or encouraging the use of the library method (see p. 99) in subjects taught in the school; and (*e*) introducing members of the school to the services of the public library.

The aim of this chapter is to deal primarily with the third and fourth of these responsibilities, especially with the conditions of secondary schools in view. The ground to be covered includes (*a*) a rapid survey of the general content or subject-matter of library training; (*b*) some discussion of method of teaching and of the practical application of it.

The general principle of library work, as of all education, is that it shall be adapted to the age and interests of the children concerned at each stage, and that it shall be progressively enlarged and deepened in scope. We shall concern ourselves mainly with three well-marked stages in secondary education.

It will be understood that we are only beginning to realize the opportunities the school library offers to the educator; and much of what follows must be regarded as tentative and experimental. A wide field lies open to individual initiative, and there is an urgent need for experiment.

LIBRARY TRAINING · I · CONTENT

We assume that in the primary stage of education the child has learnt to read, to enjoy books of a suitable type for his age, to explore books for himself, and to find books on interests he is developing. We assume, moreover, that he has been introduced to the children's department of the public library and become a member of it. In the secondary school we can build on this foundation. Within the secondary school

we may conveniently consider library training in the three stages of lower school (11/12–14); middle school (14–16); and upper school (16–18/19). What follows is a brief summary of the kind of subject-matter in which training is given at the different stages; and it is assumed that a single 'Library Period' a week is available for the purpose, at any rate so far as lower and middle school are concerned. It will be made clear later that actual instruction does not normally occupy more than a comparatively small part of the time.

The following, then, is the suggested syllabus of topics of instruction:

i LOWER SCHOOL (11/12–14)

Introduction to the library. Library rules and the reasons for them. Simple routine, as it applies to users (e.g. taking out and returning of books). The story of books. Physical make-up and binding of books. Good citizenship and the care of books. Simple account of the component parts of a book (title, list of contents, text, index; what they are for, and how they are used). The subjects represented on the library shelves. Simple account of the system of classification and how it works (most children find this fascinating). Alphabetical order: finding words in a dictionary. The catalogue, and how to use it. Some useful books, especially the dictionary and encyclopaedia; how they differ, and what they are used for. Newspapers and magazines.

ii MIDDLE SCHOOL (14–16)

Recapitulation of some of the ground covered in (i). How the classification and the catalogue can be useful in gathering information. Making of simple book-lists. More about important reference books. How to judge the value of a book for use (date, scale, author, point of view). Comparison of different books on the same subject. Fact and Comment. Newspapers again.

iii UPPER SCHOOL (16–18/19)

This is the stage of specialization, i.e. the close and careful study of a limited field. (It is to be hoped that no educational reconstruction will abandon the principle of a period of thorough study of a purposely restricted field, with the extremely valuable training this should imply.) In grammar schools a number of 'disciplines' or integrated courses of study have been developed, embodied in the advanced courses for the Higher Certificate. These courses may be of the highest educational value, provided that the subjects studied in detail are related in their treatment to human civilization and achievement as a whole, and to the world-picture on which Western civilization is based, so that the significance of the subject against that background is realized, and the subject is not treated in isolation. Here library work can be of immense value.

Instruction at this stage should include: (*a*) recapitulation of what has already been taught on Library Method, with special reference to sixth-form work, and with emphasis on critical judgment; (*b*) survey of the resources of the library on the subject of specialization, and on the relation of the subject to knowledge as a whole; (*c*) supplementary sources of knowledge, e.g. periodicals and reviews; and (*d*) the contribution which the public library can make to the needs of the pupil at this stage.

LIBRARY TRAINING · II · METHOD AND PRACTICAL APPLICATION

First, some preliminary observations. (1) A regular period or periods should be allocated in the time-table for all classes in the school to use the library, whether for library training or for work based on it. We may call these periods 'Library Periods', using the term to cover periods for library instruction and for work arising out of it, not periods in which

a class may be doing free reading or other work which might be done equally well elsewhere in the school. (2) Within the period a reasonably informal atmosphere should be maintained; but there should always be a sense of purpose. (3) Formal instruction should always be brief and never exhaustive (at least below the sixth-form level), and should always be followed by some kind of practical work. (4) A library note-book should be kept.

We will now take the three stages in turn.

i LOWER SCHOOL

A primary aim at this stage is to inspire and build up an impression of the library as a place of enjoyment and interest. Variety of occupation is important, and there is plenty of scope for originality of treatment.

A typical library period at this stage may include (*a*) some instruction (perhaps no more than five minutes), with questions or discussion; (*b*) some activity based on this instruction; (*c*) perhaps there may also be some undirected exploration of the library ('browsing'); time for this, especially at this stage, is important; (*d*) finally, perhaps, the return and issue of books. (Whether this should take place generally in a library period is doubtful, as there is so much else to do; but there is much to be said for it with children of this age, when every means should be used to encourage reading at home; and a period in which every member of a class is in the library seems an obvious time in which missionary work can be done. But children who take books out during a library period should not be precluded from taking them out at other times.)

We have spoken of activities based on instruction. These are of many kinds. The following are examples; the librarian can easily multiply them. When the general lay-out and arrangement of the library is described, the class can draw plans of it on which the places of the main subjects are marked. When the make-up of a book is described (its binding, gatherings, signatures and so on) publishers' unbound sheets (often

used as packing for parcels) may be distributed among the class for examination and folding, or the class may experiment with folding ordinary sheets of paper and marking the pages. Actual books may be examined and described. The proper way of opening a book may be demonstrated. Examples of bad treatment of one kind or another may be shown. When the use of the catalogue is explained, a child can be given a particular book to find, first in the catalogue and from there on the shelves, and the time taken in minutes and seconds—plenty of volunteers will be forthcoming. Simple cataloguing may be done (not of course for official use!); there is no better way to understand the purpose of a catalogue than to write a catalogue card. When the difference between a dictionary and an encyclopaedia is explained, and their uses, a volume of each (covering the same part of the alphabet) may be given out to each member, or pair of members, of the class, and the difference between entries such as 'motor car' in each one and the other pointed out, and similar examples invited (the dictionary defining a word, the encyclopaedia describing a thing). Simple questions of fact may be set for answer from them, such as dates, details of a life and so on. Later, short paragraphs and simple essays may be set, the matter for which is to be found in books. Children may themselves give brief talks on books they have read and enjoyed. Occasionally the librarian himself may read an extract from some book, fiction or otherwise, which he knows will have an appeal. We have already spoken of the value of allowing sometimes an opportunity for undirected reading, or browsing. We repeat that there is good reason for this at this stage; it is most unlikely that every child can or will come to the library out of school time, and it is often the child who is least likely to come on his own initiative whom one most desires to attract. Of course the success of all this entirely depends on the presence in the library of attractive books which appeal to children who are not natural lovers of books. (And here in passing we may again plead for

the provision of books for backward children in simple and easy language dealing with subjects of interest to children of the age with which we are concerned.)

For certain topics (such as the story of books) a lantern or epidiascope is useful; and the film prepared by * the National Book League *Chapter and Verse* may be shown.

It will be realized that in view of the variety of activity possible, the furniture should not be heavy but easily movable (see p. 21).

ii MIDDLE SCHOOL

A good deal of the ground covered in the lower school will be covered again, but with wider scope and in greater detail. More of the standard books of reference are introduced, and special attention is paid to methods of obtaining information, and to the cultivation of judgment in dealing with sources. Again, instruction is given in short talks, and is continually accompanied and illustrated by practical work.
Activities include:

1 Finding of Information. More advanced work can be attempted with encyclopaedia and other books of reference. Old copies of Whitaker and similar year-books can be used, and should be kept for this purpose (see p. 29). Biographies and statistics supply useful simple material. The kinds of information on which questions may be set include: isolated facts, description of events, general summary of a historical movement, short account of some topic. (Much of this work is akin to précis.) The catalogue is used to trace material on a subject in the library. Simple bibliographies may be constructed. More practice can be given in using the classification system as a method of gathering information: its application to the Concentric Method. By the 'Concentric Method' I mean the approach to a topic by stages from the general to the

particular. Any topic is a subdivision of a wider subject, and that in its turn is a branch of a still wider subject. In using the concentric method one first gets a bird's eye view, so to speak, of the whole background; then one successively narrows the field step by step. For instance, one may read about colour in a text-book of general science, in a text-book of physics, in a treatise on light, and in a book on the specific subject of colour. In the first case one gets a view of the topic against a wide general background, and as the range of book becomes narrower, so the topic itself is treated in greater and greater detail. Naturally this type of approach cannot be used frequently; time does not allow; but it should most certainly be used once or twice, to bring out the first principle of an intelligent approach to a new topic: i.e. seeing it against its general background before studying it in detail (a method which is capable of application to all essays of an informational type) (see also p. 110).

This brings us to

2 Use of Judgment. This is applied in (*a*) learning to decide what book or type of book is suitable for a particular purpose; and (*b*) learning to compare sources.

(*a*) *Deciding suitability of book.* It often happens that a child who has been set to write a short essay for homework on some subject as the reign of Henry VIII will sit down to a full-length biography, though it must be obvious on a moment's reflection that the book will take many hours merely to read. The natural result is disappointment. It is necessary to show children how to go about choosing the book which will most help them for the particular piece of work they have to do. In dealing with this problem, the librarian should show that there are three questions: first, to decide exactly what kind of information is wanted; second, to decide what *kind* of book will best give this information; and third, to consider a particular book, or books, from this point of view, taking

into account its date and scale. Here use may be made of list of contents, index, preface.

(*b*) *Comparison of Sources.* This is perhaps one of the most valuable fields of library work, and it is most important that it should be tackled, at any rate in a simple way, at this stage, since so many children leave school before a sixth form stage is reached. Such work may begin with a simple examination of a narrative, in which fact and comment are distinguished; and from this may pass to an examination of two independent accounts of the same event, a football match, for instance. The class should be asked to note what is common to both accounts and what is mentioned by one alone; what facts may be taken as reasonably certain; what comment there is; and whether there is anything to suggest that one account should be preferred, either in general or on some particular detail, to the other. (The accounts might be those of a cup-tie, as reported in the local papers of the competing teams!) From a simple case such as that, one can lead on to cases where more pronounced bias is concerned, e.g. accounts of the same event from opposite political, or religious, standpoints. (This is one reason why the library should take in papers and periodicals, and especially those of different political colouring, see p. 88.) Of course, the examples chosen at this stage must be simple and straightforward; but even so, something can be done, on lines such as these, to teach independence of judgment and caution in accepting statements at their face value without examination.

Work of this kind is already often done in the class-room, in English or history; but the library offers an admirable opportunity of practical work; and of course, the teacher of history or English (who may not be the school librarian), will be the natural tutor in this case. (In fact, it should be recognized that not *all* work in the library is work to be directed by the librarian himself; the 'Library Method' can be applied in a variety of subjects, and in each case it is the teacher

qualified in that subject, provided he is interested and convinced, who is best qualified to guide the work—on this see also p. 120.) A well-used library is indeed one in which most of the subject teachers prefer to take appropriate periods in the library in their subjects on library lines.

3 Presentation of the Work. Questions; correlation; essays, individual and co-operative.

(*a*) *Isolated Facts.* Questions on isolated facts requiring short answers may be dealt with on slips. The librarian can draw up his own questions; or use may be made of such books as Swann, *Test Questions for the School Library*; Andrade, *The Answer Is*; Shanks, *Do You Know?*; Phillips, *Ask Me Another* (Ptarmigan Books). The librarian may have a stock of cards ready prepared for use with suitable questions.

(*b*) *Comparison and Correlation of Information.* This may take the form of short paragraphs, perhaps in two columns, one for source A, one for source B, matter common to both being entered across both columns (not unlike the method adopted in some synopses of the Gospels).

(*c*) *Essay: Individual.* More extensive work calls for an essay. At first essays are short and simple. They are of course informational, not imaginative, in character. There is a very wide range of possible subjects, but it is probably wise, apart from exceptional cases, to avoid setting subjects involving purely technical description, as they can hardly be treated without the mere copying of the source. Library essays should always be provided with a short list of books used, with name of author and date; and brief notes on any of them from the user's point of view should be encouraged.

(*d*) *Research Work by the Class: the Co-operative Essay.* In this case a more ambitious type of subject is undertaken, chosen for working out by the class as a whole. The essential thing is that it shall be generally of interest to children of

the age in question, and that it shall have a number of sub-topics. There are many subjects of this kind, e.g. the Story of Transport, or a Local Survey. The work is essentially that of a Project.

Co-operative Essay: Method

1 Preliminary Work by the Librarian or Teacher. He plans the Essay; sees that the necessary books are available in the school library, in the public library (and possibly on loan from it), and draws up a book-list.

2 Discussion with the Class. The subject is discussed as a whole with the class and the general purpose explained. Possible subdivisions of the work are mentioned and suggestions invited, so that the scheme as finally settled will be a piece of community work.

3 Distribution of Work. The class is divided into small groups of five or six, and each undertakes one of the agreed divisions of the subject. For each group an editor is chosen, and he is responsible generally for the work done by his group. Within the group, separate members of the class will be responsible generally for sub-sections, and there is every opportunity of fitting the work to the interest and capacity of individuals. Sometimes a subject may capture the imagination of the person engaged upon it; I remember a case where a fourth form boy produced as his contribution a section of twenty-nine foolscap pages.

4 Books. It is clear that with such a project a number of books, not of the general reference class, will be much used. These books should be withdrawn from circulation and kept on the 'Reserved Book' shelf (see p. 54). They may be issued to individuals for use overnight, but always on the understanding that they shall be returned next morning. If the Essay is

planned well ahead, as it must be, some books needed will be specially purchased (see p. 28). Discussion with the public librarian should lead to a valuable supplementing of resources, either by loan or by visits of the class to the public library (see p. 126).

5 Group Work. The sections undertaken by the different groups are planned in discussion with the librarian or teacher in charge of the project; and within each group the subsections are divided up among individuals, or pairs working together. (Here the advantage of a conference room—see p. 14—is obvious.) The topics are worked out as essays, which will form chapters of the complete work. The temptation, as with library work of all kinds, is to copy out mechanically what seems an appropriate paragraph, or even to juxtapose paragraphs from different and even inconsistent sources (a practice not unknown to past historians). Encouragement should always be given to draw on more sources than one, and special recognition given to those who discover discrepancies. Each essay (as with the Individual Essay above) should be provided with a list of the books used, and some account where possible of the use made of them. The lists may of course be combined into a single bibliography for the whole essay.

6 Discussion and Correction of Essays. Each essay or chapter is taken in turn, discussed with its writer and corrected. Then the separate essays are brought together and correlated. Cases of overlapping and repetition (if they have not been dealt with during the writing of the essay) are dealt with. A small editorial committee may give the essay its final shape, with introduction, table of contents, lists of contributors, and, if desired, index and consolidated bibliography at the end. Illustrations and diagrams can be added as desired.

7 Final Form. The whole essay may be reproduced in a typewritten copy, and this circulated among the class and finally

placed in the library. Better still, if it could be afforded, copies could be made for each member of the class.

4 Correlation of Essay Work with the Curriculum. Work based on library instruction is not done *in vacuo*: its material consists in facts, topics and subjects. Where practice is required in giving answers to questions based on isolated facts, or in writing simple paragraphs, it is of little moment what particular material is used. But work in the form of essays, whether individual or co-operative, offers a valuable opportunity of using as its material a subject studied in the curriculum. This at once enriches the treatment of that subject, and provides the child with a recognized objective in his library work.

There is no reason why in the second year of this stage a co-operative essay should not be done each term. They should not all be of the same type; there is no reason why a different school subject should not be taken each term; and it certainly is not necessary that all such essays should be on a school subject. Where however this is so, the interest and help of a member of the staff who is teaching the subject is essential; the most satisfactory arrangement of all would be for him to take over the complete organization of the essay.

It will be pointed out that in the later part of this stage work of this kind in grammar schools is likely to be affected by the imminence of examinations. Even so, it is to be hoped that so fruitful a method of bringing into play a different kind of mental activity from that exercised in the normal class-room will not be allowed to lapse. From the narrowest and most utilitarian point of view such work is useful as practice in the writing of English; and it has a more general effect on methods of study.

For modern schools such work offers wide scope for giving interesting and practical work to many children who are not great lovers of books. Local surveys may be of especial value. Those who wish to work on these lines will find the following suggestive and useful: (1) '*Discovery*' in three sheets, published

by the Le Play House. They cover (i) *Nature*; (ii) *Local History*; (iii) *The Present*. (Price eightpence each: Le Play House Press, Malvern.) (2) The Association for Education in Citizenship announces: *The School Looks Around.* *

iii UPPER SCHOOL: SIXTH FORM

1 Personal Study. The value of a well-equipped library for sixth form work has long been recognized. In some schools it would be almost true to say that the library has been regarded as a sixth form library and nothing else; and not a few schools have built up libraries for sixth form use which would do credit to an institution of College status. Such libraries have long been used to provide the material for wide individual reading and the preparation of essays on the subject of specialization. This has been particularly true of literary and historical studies, and the work has been of the highest educational value. It is very much to be hoped that this use of the library may not only be continued but also extended to other subjects and interests. There is good ground for anxiety that the pressure of specialization, especially on the mathematical, technical and scientific sides, may lead to an undue narrowing of interests and of personality.

2 Instruction. At this stage there will naturally be less formal instruction. But there are certain topics on which talks and discussion are useful, especially at the beginning of the course. We may suggest: (*a*) discussion of the general relation of the subject of specialization to the field of knowledge as a whole, and its contribution to civilization. Attention should be called to books and other material in the library which deal with this relationship; *and it should be a requirement that every member of a specialist group should read carefully some one or more of such books during each term of his period of specialization.* Thus a specialist in Chemistry and Physics should know something of the relation of these subjects to

the field of Natural Science as a whole; and he should know something of the contribution they make to the life of man. (*b*) Survey of the resources of the library on the subject of specialization itself and on its subdivisions, whether in books or pamphlets, periodicals and the more fugitive type of material. In considering these resources, attention will be called to the material available in the Borough or County library; and it may well be that some of this material may be made available by loan. At any rate the pupil can himself see it in the public library and borrow it (see p. 126). (*c*) Recapitulation of teaching given in the middle school on the collection of material (classification, cataloguing, the Concentric Method —see p. 102), and too much stress cannot be laid on the use of judgment and criticism, with special reference to the needs of the subject in question.

It is clear that in all this the close collaboration of subject teachers is indispensable.

Where talks are given on library resources and methods of research, adequate notes should be insisted on; and it is useful to encourage the keeping of diaries of reading in which are entered details and brief notes on books read (see also p. 100).

3 Essays. The most important application of the library method is with essays involving a sustained use of research, and the comparison of sources and authorities. The general elementary principles of this research have already been outlined (see p. 103); their application to a wider field and in a more intensive way is now possible. As with middle school work, essays can be individual or co-operative; and as the general principles are the same as those there dealt with, there is no need here to recapitulate. But two or three special points are worth mentioning:

a The Library Method (i.e. the use of the Research Essay as vehicle for the intensive study of a narrow field) **as a regular**

element in advanced course work. The Library Method is likely to be educationally most fruitful if it is regarded as an indispensable adjunct of all advanced course work. If this is so, it is possible to plan a systematic course of work extending over a period; in this way a considerable variety of topics can be covered. In a modern language course, for instance, a wide range of matter may be covered; not only literature, but religion, art, science, history as they bear upon the period selected for special study; and these may follow a definite scheme, which takes into account the particular needs of each year's syllabus. In two years the effect will have been to give each member of the group the chance of original work on six topics arising out of his regular Higher Certificate work, supposing, that is, that a long essay of this kind is set every term. The choice of subject may affect book-selection (see p. 28).

b Co-operative Essays involving work by members of different advanced courses. We have spoken above of the use of the library as a store on which material can be drawn to supplement the specialized work of the advanced course in private reading; and of course essays of the kind described may also be so used. Here I would call attention to the possibilities of a variation in which work on a Co-operative Essay is not confined to the members of a single group or advanced course, but where two (or even more) main fields of specialization are involved, in an essay dealing with the contact-area of different advanced courses. It is impossible within the present limits to do more than indicate generally the kind of work contemplated. Essays may deal, for instance, with the common ground of History and Literature (e.g. 'Milton in his historical and literary setting'—perhaps, more definitely, 'The reflection in Milton's literary work of the political and historical conditions of his time' or in whatever way the idea should be phrased); or with the common ground of science and history (the effects on civilization of the scientific discoveries

of the 19th (or 20th) century); or of science and sociology (scientific, or simply chemical, research in post-War planning); or religion and science (e.g. the influence of scientific theory on Christian thought); or of Classics and modern languages (e.g. a comparative study of Greek and French Classical Tragedy). Joint work between students of different groups opens up a great variety of promising fields of activity, and no progressive teacher will have any difficulty in working out his own plan. I believe moreover that contacts between groups such as I have described help to counter intellectual segregation, and that they give opportunities for cross-fertilization of thought, both in the important initial discussions in which the plan is hammered out, and in the detailed work which follows, when both co-operating groups are working together from different angles to a common end.

c Practical Difficulties. Work of this kind calls for careful planning by the librarian and the subject teacher, or teachers, concerned. The same general procedure is followed as for middle school essays, with regard to providing and reserving books, and drawing up a book-list; for joint discussion of the main theme and its divisions and treatment, and allocation of the various topics to individuals or small groups. Individual discussion and guidance is also needed. But the greatest problem of practical organization lies in the final stages—the correction and editing of the essays,—for on the usual plan they would be given in towards the end of term, in any case a very busy time; and all will need attention at the same time. A possible way of surmounting this would be to set the essays at mid-term and collect them next term. This would incidentally give an opportunity for holiday work on them.

The second problem concerns the provision of time within school. It would seem that an allocation of three, or at least two, periods a week in the library is needed, and time out of school as well. Some of this time would have to come from the time allotted in the time-table to the subject of

specialization; perhaps the rest might be allotted as 'library periods' in the time-table. On a short term view it may be felt difficult, with the present demands of the specialist, to spare any time at all; but on the long term view there would seem to be a very strong case indeed for the sacrifice, if sacrifice it be.

On the general subject of teaching the use of the library, the reader is referred to Ingles and McCague, *Teaching the use of Books and Libraries* (H. W. Wilson, 2nd edition, 1940), specially valuable for lower and middle school work. *

THE LIBRARY OUT OF SCHOOL

So far we have considered the uses of the library in school hours, and especially in relation to the curriculum; but the library has a very important part to play out of school as well. We will mention some of its uses.

a Consultation out of School. In school there is little opportunity for the ordinary member of the school to be in the library and explore it at his leisure, apart from time allowed in library periods for 'browsing' (see p. 100), and that mainly in the lower school. But it is very important that there should be opportunities for this free use. In boarding schools there is no difficulty; in a day school the times available are usually restricted to the mid-day lunch hour and the time immediately following afternoon school. Full advantage should be taken of these times. Some schools have experimented with an evening opening on one or more days and found it popular. Opening on Saturday mornings is usually difficult because of cleaning. But there is a great deal to be said for the maximum possible opening of the school library at whatever times local conditions allow, especially in districts where recreational facilities are meagre and where there is no branch of the public library.

b Issue of Books for Home Reading. All schools should allow books to be taken out for reading at home. Where home

conditions leave much to be desired some hesitation may naturally be felt; but it is just where such conditions prevail that this service is particularly needed, and rather than deny it, the librarian should convince his authority that any loss incurred is worth while for the end served. Besides, the school itself, and the library, can do much to help the child to be proud of the book he takes home, and to do his best to keep it in good condition.

c School Societies. We have already emphasized the importance of providing for all interests in the library (see pp. 25; 117). Special attention can be paid to the needs of the various societies in the school; the Musical Society, the Young Farmers' Club, and so on. With music, for instance, a useful collection of instrumental scores, miniature scores, criticism, can gradually be built up, and it will certainly be well used. Societies can make suggestions for building up the sections in which they are interested (see also p. 30).

d Archives, Pictures, Exhibitions. The library should be a depository of material illustrating the history of the School and its daily life, the locality, and contemporary history. Out of this material a collection of school archives (if that is not too formal a word), a local collection, and a historical collection can be formed. The reader may be referred to articles in the *School Librarian*: 'Documentation in the School Library' —I. On Contemporary Events (March 1940); II. On School Material (December 1940), both by the present writer; and III. Local History, by N. G. Brett-James (Hon. Editor, London and Middlesex Archaeological Society's Transactions, and formerly on the staff of Mill Hill School) (December 1941).

Further, a valuable addition to the ordinary resources of the library is a *collection of pictures.* These can cover and illustrate the whole range of interests covered by the collection of books. Obvious sources are: the national illustrated papers,

art magazines like *Apollo*, travel guides and brochures, and, before the War, propaganda literature. Pictures are best stored in a vertical file (see p. 23), and classified exactly as the library is classified (see p. 55). If desired pictures may be mounted uniformly on stout paper or card.

Exhibitions may be organized based on the collected material. An instance of an extremely successful exhibition (based entirely on illustrations from the *Illustrated London News*) was that held in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford in 1942, illustrating the progress of archaeological work between the two Wars.

The general subject of the Conference and Annual Meeting of the School Library Association in 1946 was the collection and use of non-book material (reported in the *School Librarian*, September 1946; to which those interested are referred).

6 THE LIBRARIAN AND HIS WORK

FROM WHAT HAS already been said, it will be evident that a library full and effectively used is a major department of the school's educational activities, and its organization and management is work of great responsibility. It is desirable at this point to say a few words on the qualities and qualifications needed in a successful school librarian, and on the duties involved.

1 Qualities Needed

As the library is concerned with school activities, academic and non-academic, of all kinds, and with every type of individual and individual interest, the librarian should be *a man of wide reading and sympathies*. He should also be *a good teacher*, for he is responsible for giving instruction in its use, and encouraging its application to various fields. To perform

its function adequately, a library must be efficiently administered; so a *gift of organization and some command of routine* is necessary, though it should never be obtrusive. Finally, as the librarian is in constant contact with other members of the staff and with pupils, a most important quality is that of *tact and the power of inspiring confidence.*

2 Qualifications

a Academic. The librarian's qualifications as a scholar and teacher should be at least as high as those considered needful in the head of a department. Apart from his general interests and sympathies referred to above, he should have a first-class knowledge of a subject of his own. There is little reason to regard the post as naturally falling to a particular subject (as English or history) and none at all for treating it as the perquisite of a senior member of the staff. The first consideration should always be the qualifications of personality and fitness for the post.

b Professional. It is plain that to administer the library successfully, knowledge of the principles and practice of School Librarianship are essential. At present there is no
* recognized training for school librarians in this country; it is one of the most serious gaps in our educational system. Before the War the Board of Education conducted short courses, during the summer holidays at Oxford, on the Organization of Libraries in Secondary Schools. These were of great help to those who were present at them, and they have now been resumed. But it is important that training in school librarianship should form part of the regular courses in Training Colleges. (On this general topic, see Appendix I in
* the Report *School Libraries in Post-War Reconstruction*—1945.)

In the meanwhile the school librarian should make every use of other methods of acquainting himself with the principles of good librarianship, especially through books and through

contacts with other school librarians and with the public library.

3 Responsibilities and Duties

The librarian's duties may be grouped as educational, administrative and miscellaneous. We will take these in turn.

a Educational. This includes the organization of instruction in the use of books and of the library, and of a system of library periods; collaboration with subject teachers in organizing the use of the library (and the 'Library Method') in different subjects; guidance in reading and research; co-operation with school societies; and the effecting of contact with the public library (see p. 97).

b Administrative. These comprise: the selection and ordering of books, and their preparation for use; the classification and cataloguing of the collection; the establishment and control of a system of issue and recall of books; the organization of periodical stocktaking; the regular sorting out of books for repair or discarding; the keeping of accounts and drawing up of an annual report; the organization and direction of assistance, whether given by members of the staff or by pupils; the selection of papers and periodicals.

c Miscellaneous and General. Under this head we may mention: the building up of collections of subsidiary material (pictures, maps, cuttings, 'archives'; and all audio-visual material); the organization of exhibitions of this material to illustrate special topics; and, finally, the introduction of all pupils to the public library service.

4 Allocation of Time

It will be seen from the summary just given that the librarian needs a generous allowance of time if the library is playing a fully effective part in the educational work of the school.

One instance must suffice to make clear the point. The library serving a school of 600 may well expect an annual intake of perhaps 400 books. What does this mean in terms of the librarian's time? Each book needs to be discussed, selected, ordered, collated, entered in accession register, classified, catalogued and prepared for use. These processes from beginning to end involve an average of about ten to fifteen minutes at least for each book, or two to two-and-a-half hours a week throughout the school year; time spent on accessions alone; *and very little of this work can usually be delegated to pupils*. In America the regular system in high schools is that of full-time professionally trained school librarians. The British custom, with very few exceptions, is in favour of the teacher-librarian, both for reasons of historical development and because of the very close liaison this involves between the library and the teaching work of the school. The most obvious solution on British lines is: (i) a generous grant of time to the librarian; (ii) the help of another member of the staff as assistant-librarian, to whom also an allocation of time is made (see p. 119); (iii) the help of pupils. In this way most of the problems may be satisfactorily disposed of. (A further saving of time could be effected by the institution of a recognized system of centralized cataloguing and the issue of standard cards, on the same principle as that prevailing in America with the Library of Congress cards; but this has not come yet; and it must be remembered that the process of cataloguing a book helps to give the librarian a valuable insight into the contents of the library.) The question arises: 'What effect will this allocation of time have upon the teacher's pension-rights?' The maximum proportion of time occupied in 'non-teaching' service permissible under the Ministry's regulations is two-fifths (see Section 1 (2) (*b*) of the Teachers' (Superannuation) Act, 1945).

7 STAFF AND PUPILS

IN THIS CHAPTER the main topics for discussion are: (*a*) the library committee, and (*b*) various ways in which the staff and pupils can contribute to the work of the library in the school.

a The Library Committee

It is common practice in schools to appoint some form of Library Committee. The general purpose is to provide opportunity for discussion of library problems by representatives of the general school community. The committee may consist of staff only, or of staff and pupils; or there may even be two committees. A committee enables, in fact, a sort of liaison to be maintained between the school as a whole and one of its major activities.

The main subjects of discussion by the committee are: general library policy (e.g. the formulation of rules and traditions); special problems that arise (e.g. missing books); and book-selection, especially in the wide sectors not covered by school subjects (see p. 30).

The success of the work of a committee (as with all committees) depends on a common sense of purpose. Its advantages, especially in the enlisting of responsible opinion in the school, are very great; it is least likely to function successfully if it is felt to be a brake on the activity of a progressive librarian.

b Assistance from Staff and Pupils

1 Staff. The appointment of a second member of the staff to act as assistant-librarian has already been suggested (p. 118).

Needless to say, the qualities important in a school librarian (p. 115) should be looked for in him.

Other valuable help given by the staff includes: (*a*) help in book-selection (p. 30); (*b*) co-operation in Essay and Project work, and generally in planning the application of the Library Method to work in different subjects (pp. 105, 110); (*c*) service on the library committee.

2 Pupils. A great amount of routine work may be taken off the librarian's hands, and his time so set free for more important work, by a wise system of devolution of duties. A system of this kind has the great advantage of distributing a variety of responsibilities in all parts of the school, and providing both the bookish and non-bookish child with duties readily adaptable to individual capacities and desires. We will enumerate some of the forms which pupils' help may take. (i) *Library Prefects.* A number of senior members of the school may be appointed as Library Prefects, their duties being both supervisory (e.g. taking charge of the library when it is open) and technical (e.g. taking charge of various special activities, like book-repair). Their help is also invaluable as a connecting link between the library and the school, especially in its senior part, where public opinion is usually made. They can thus act as an effective sounding board in recording and making known the point of view of the school, and they can help in their turn in forming a healthy public opinion. Thus with the librarian they can act as a formal or informal committee. (ii) *Library Helpers.* These will normally be recruited from the middle and lower school, though there are always individuals who like to continue as helpers even in the upper school. Their main duties are routine duties, e.g. general tidying, looking after papers and periodicals, keeping sections of the library in order, managing the collections of pictures, cuttings and archives; and perhaps dealing with the issue and return of books. At the end of the term they carry out the process of stocktaking (see p. 82). (iii) *Form or Class Library Monitors.* Some schools have instituted a system by which

each class has its library representative or monitor, who acts as a sort of liaison officer between the library and his own class. Monitors may be of great service in tracking down overdue books and seeing they are returned, and in circulating important information and notices. (iv) *Miscellaneous.* Special duties may be assigned to pupils with the requisite abilities, e.g. simple book-repairs and rebinding (pp. 14, 86); other craft work; lettering (e.g. for shelf-guides and notices); printing (e.g. book-slips). But it is unwise, apart from exceptional cases, to entrust accessioning, classification and cataloguing to pupils.

The library helpers form a rough hierarchy; a pupil in the lower school when first appointed is assigned simple duties, such as tidying up and looking after papers; and he is promoted to more responsible ones as he goes up the school. In assigning sections of shelving, it is very often possible to ensure that a library helper looks after a subject in which he has a personal interest. The library helper gets an excellent grounding in different sides of library administration, and often an intimate knowledge of its contents; and he will be a most useful Library Prefect at the end of his career.

8 THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

1 THE PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICE

THE TWO MAIN branches of the public library service with which the school librarian is brought into close contact are the borough or municipal library and the county library. The provision of municipal libraries rests on a series of Public Library Acts passed during a period of about 100 years, the effect of which has been to enable a town to become a 'library authority', to have the power, that is, to maintain a public

library and to use for this purpose the proceeds of a rate. It was not until the passing of the 1919 Act, however, that the public library system was widely extended outside the towns. This was effected by enabling the County Councils also to become library authorities, and to maintain libraries in areas in their control not covered by municipal libraries. Even now, the Acts have not been 'adopted' by all areas, whether municipal or county, though the vast majority do provide service of one or the other kind (see *McColvin Report*, pp. 11, 12). Almost every school, therefore, is potentially in contact with one or other type of public library; with which type depends on the area in which the school is placed.

We will describe very briefly the two systems.

a · Municipal Libraries. The following may be regarded as a typical lay-out. In the town there is probably: (i) the Main, or Central, Library, with Reference and Lending Departments, Newsroom and Children's Library. There is also staff accommodation and storage room. (ii) a number of Branch Libraries, each serving a district in the town. These follow more simply and on a smaller scale the general pattern of the Central Library, i.e. they provide opportunities for consulting books on the premises and for taking them out on loan, and often include a children's department, or at any rate section. Anyone may use any municipal library for reference, but, apart from special cases, residents only have the right to borrow books.

b · County Libraries. The County Library pattern is in many ways different. The headquarters of the County Library consists of premises housing the administrative services and the main book-stock. This is not normally available for direct consultation and loan on the spot, reference and lending being carried out at the branches, which are not unlike the branches of municipal libraries, and serve the more populous parts of the county area. Villages are served by 'centres',

commonly, though not always, placed in schools. These are managed by voluntary help, and are usually only open for a few hours in the week. Books, including a selection of fiction and non-fiction and children's books are sent from headquarters, and recalled after three or four months, another selection then being sent. These books may be borrowed by readers living in the area served by the centre. Obviously no provision for reference work is made. Other services maintained by some County Libraries include a travelling library van; and the postal provision of books for students (practice varies in the charging of postage for this service).

It will be seen that the type of service depends mainly on the character of area served. It would be impracticable to provide a branch service in an ordinary village, though perhaps it might be feasible to do it for a group of villages, somewhat after the pattern of the Cambridge Village College system.

A further difference which may or may not have its significance lies in the relation of the two systems to their Local Authorities. With the municipal library, the library committee is a committee of the Town Council, and the Borough Librarian is an officer of the borough, co-ordinate, in a sense, with the Director of Education. With the county library, the library committee is a sub-committee, not of the County Council, but of the education committee, so that the County Librarian is technically subordinate to the Director of Education. Both arrangements have their supporters and their opponents: on the one side it is said that it is more likely that public libraries will receive adequate attention if they are an independent activity of the Local Authority than if they are a necessarily minor part of the sphere of the education committee; on the other hand it is maintained that in the broad sense public libraries are themselves part of the whole great educational system, embracing now many adult activities, not to mention the various forms of service of youth; and that it is far more likely that there will be a

maximum of fruitful co-ordination if both are administered by the same department. There we will leave it.

One service supplied by many libraries of either type to schools is the loaning of *collections* of books for use in the school itself; of this we shall speak later.

2 THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AND THE SCHOOL

IN CONSIDERING the relations of the public library and the school, we take certain general principles as our starting point.

a · The school library must belong to the school, and not consist simply of a loan collection from the public library. This follows from the fact that the library is a necessary part of school equipment, and is as integral a part of the school as the laboratory is, or the gymnasium. In any case, the greater part of the stock of a school library should consist of books which ought to be permanently there, and are not in the nature of a loan.

b · The school library must be maintained and administered by the school and not as a branch of the public library service. As the library plays an important part in the educational life of the school, it is essential that it is administered as a department of the school.

In other words, the provision, maintenance and administration of the school library are the responsibility of the educational authority and not of the public library. But this being so,

c · the closest co-operation between the public library and the school is to be desired and worked for. Various possible forms which this co-operation may take are suggested below.

i Help from the Public Library for the School Library

a *Book-selection.* Perhaps the most fruitful of all the forms of assistance which the public library can offer to the school librarian is help in the choice of books (see p. 30). The public library is in a position to order far more widely than the

school, and normally has available almost on publication a wide range of the newly published books. The school librarian should make a point of seeing as far as possible all acquisitions, especially in the children's department, as well as the wide range of books on general interests. He may well post in his own library any typed or printed lists of books newly added to the public library (and see p. 30).

b *Supplementary Book-supply.* While the main stock of the school library must belong to the school, there are certain classes of books which it is not normally economic to buy but which it is desirable to be able to use for a limited period. These include: (*a*) certain expensive books temporarily needed for special work, e.g. in advanced courses, or by teachers; (*b*) small collections of books for Project work in lower and middle school; (*c*) sets of plays for reading in class or in a Literary or Dramatic Society; (*d*) loans of a general nature. These may be of perhaps 200 or 300 volumes, changed every term. Such books are shelved in the library, but should be clearly distinguished from the normal library stock (of course they will have the public library bookplate or stamp). They may be issued within the school. In case of such loans the librarian will either send a list of the books he desires, or at any rate a general indication of the kinds. Loans of all these types are made by both municipal and county libraries.

The librarian should also bring to the notice of his fellow-teachers the possibility of obtaining books through the public library from the Regional Bureau or National Central Library.

c *Administration.* The principles of librarianship operating in both public libraries and in school libraries are the same, but there are often considerable differences in practice; indeed both public and school libraries differ considerably among themselves. But the librarian will often find it helpful to see how a particular problem (e.g. of classification) is dealt with in the public library. (On the general question of a *school library adviser* my opinion is strongly in favour of the solution

proposed in the *Joint Report* [par. 50] that a full-time library
* organizer should be appointed by the Local Education Authority, an ex-teacher or teacher-librarian, and not—as suggested in the Library Association's *Work with Young People Committee's Report* [L.A.R., Jan. 1946]—a member of the public library staff.)

d *Visits to the Public Library.* Where the public library, whether a central one or one of its branches, is easily accessible to the school, visits by individuals or by classes can be organized, not only in order to become familiar with the public library, but in order to carry out work of a Project or research description.

ii Help from the School for the Public Library

This means, fundamentally, the use of the school's strategic position in education to bring the public library service to the knowledge of all the children who pass through the school, and to induce them to use it. This can be done both indirectly and directly. We quote from the Joint Report: 'Indirectly, everything which enlists the interest of children in their school library and increases its intelligent use will redound to the advantage and subsequent influence of the public library, while it is mainly in the schools that taste can be developed, and children taught the skills needed for using a reference library and for extracting information from works of reference. Directly, the school can do much. Every child in his first "Library Period" should be told about the public library and induced to join its children's department. Classes should be sometimes taken to the public library and shown over it by the public library staff. Occasional work (Project or other) should be set involving visits to the public library. Visits may be paid by the public librarian or children's librarian, or a member of their staff, to the school itself, to talk about the work of the public library. As children grow older they should be encouraged to join the students' section; and when they

leave every effort should be made to persuade them to remain members of the public library.'

On this whole topic the valuable appendix by C. H. Caulfeild Osborne should be consulted (Appendix II: *Memorandum on the Relations between the School Library and the Public or County Library*), from which the quotation in the above paragraph was taken. *

POSTSCRIPT TO THE BEGINNER

A GREAT DEAL has been said in this book about the work of a school librarian, his problems and difficulties, and you may feel a little anxious and alarmed, if you have been given the task of organizing your own library, at the thought of the task that lies ahead. You may well wonder whether the routine described is really necessary, and whether the same end might not be reached by a simpler road.

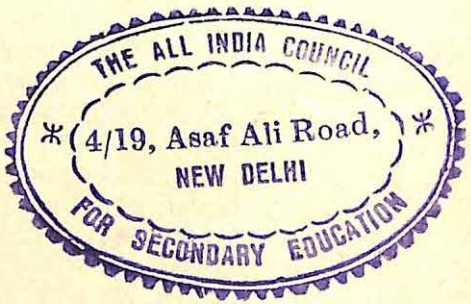
So it is worth while all the time to remember that the whole purpose of organization is to make life more efficient and therefore easier; and all the details that have been given are given because they have grown out of practical experience of the difficulties which a school librarian is bound sooner or later to face.

There need be no dogma in all this. Every school librarian may, and will, in some degree, run his library in his own way; and this is as it should be. Every library is to a large extent an expression of the individual school's own personality (to which the librarian has his own contribution to make), with special features of its own. But with all the scope and need for individuality, experience shows that certain fundamental and universal kinds of difficulty arise, and out of the various methods of dealing with these a certain orthodox practice has grown up in school library technique; and the prudent beginner will be well advised to follow this till he has himself faced the difficulties and discovered for himself, if he can, a

better solution of his own; then, we hope, he will share it with the rest of us.

And there is another reason also for following a path already blazed. Not only is it likely to save you from many false starts and wrong turnings, but it makes for consistence and continuity of practice if you have an assistant appointed later to help you, and when the time comes for you to hand over the reins to your successor.

With all its problems and difficulties (and not a little because of them), the work of the school librarian is of a fascinating sort. Its informal and friendly contacts with staff and with children of every age and taste, its close touch with the heart of the educational work of the school and with all its branches, its manifold opportunities for initiative, combine to make it work of as satisfying a kind as is to be found in the whole field of education.



APPENDIX 1

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION was founded by a group of teachers and others interested in the development and educational use of school libraries. Membership is open to individual persons (personal membership), and to schools and organizations (corporate membership).

Its main aims are:

a Educational: (i) to study and promote the use of the library within the curriculum and generally in the life of the school, especially through instruction in its use in different parts of the school by methods appropriate to the ages concerned; and through application of the 'Library Method', involving initiative in the collection, correlation and presentation of material drawn from a variety of sources, and supplementary to the work of the classroom, to different subjects at different stages; (ii) to explore the possibilities of the library as providing for undirected reading of all kinds, and especially in the stimulation and satisfaction of constructive interests; and (iii) to collect and make available information on books and other reading material.

b Technical: to promote the development of a technique suitable for school libraries as such, and to collect information on planning and equipment.

c Co-operative: to encourage the exchange of information and experience of all kinds among school librarians themselves, and to promote contact and co-operation with other educational organizations with parallel objects.

Its chief activities are:

a Annual General Meeting, held in connection with the Conference of Educational Associations, of which the Association is a member.

b Local Branches, to afford members opportunity of meeting one another and exchanging ideas on educational, literary and technical subjects relevant to school libraries, and to represent the Association in the area concerned.

c Council, consisting of the Committee of the Association, together with representatives of all Branches, and meeting at the time of the Annual General Meeting for interchange of views on Branch and local affairs.

d 'The School Librarian & School Library Review', the organ of the Association, published once a term.

e Various publications, including book lists, reports on special topics, leaflets giving guidance for beginners.

There are a number of subcommittees, responsible for special questions. Present subcommittees are: Training and Qualifications; Membership; Planning and Equipment; Publications; Primary Schools.

Further particulars, and forms of application for membership, may be obtained from the Secretary, School Library Association, Gordon House, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.

APPENDIX 2

GLOSSARY

Accession book. A book in which are recorded all books as they are added to the library (see pp. 34; 35).

Accession number. The serial number given to each volume as it is entered in the Accession book.

Added entries. Any entry in the catalogue other than the main entry.

Alcove. A section of the library formed by projecting book-stacks.

Analytics, or *Analytical entries.* An entry for a part of a book, especially of subjects dealt with in the book other than the main one.

Basic Stock. The minimum provision of books needed for the full functioning of the library.

Bay. A vertical unit of shelving, one shelf wide.

Bay guide. An indicator of subject of books in a bay.

Broken order. Any variation of the natural order of classes in a system of classification.

Call symbol. The symbol indicating the exact placing of a book in the library, consisting of the class number (or letters) and the first letter(s) of the author's surname.

Catalogue. A list of the contents of the library.

Charging system. A system of organizing the issue and recall of books.

Class guide. A guide giving class number and subject of a main class.

Class number. Number indicating the class to which a book is assigned.

Classification. A system of arranging books in the library (usually by subject).

Classified catalogue. A catalogue in which entries are arranged in the order of the system of classification used in the library.

Collation. (*a*) Examination of a book to test its physical completeness; (*b*) that part of a catalogue entry which describes the physical form of a book.

Concentric Method. The method of approaching a topic from the most general treatment to the most particular.

Conference Room. A room opening off the main library room in which small groups of students may work together without disturbing other users of the library.

Date-slip. Slip pasted in book on which the date of issue or recall may be stamped.

Description. The part of a catalogue entry which records the title, imprint, collation and notes.

Dictionary Catalogue. A catalogue including both author and subject entries (and if desired title entries) arranged in alphabetical order.

Entry. The record of a book in the catalogue. Entries may be *Main* or *Added* (secondary).

'*Ex-libris*' *copies.* Books sold from subscription libraries.

Form. In classification, the literary form in which a work is presented.

Format. The size, shape and style of a book, catalogue, etc.

Heading. The word or symbol which decides the order of an entry in the catalogue.

Imprint. Statement in a catalogue entry of the place of publication, publisher and date of a book.

Island case. Isolated book case.

Library block. A unit of library rooms, including main library, reading room, librarian's room and conference room(s).

Library Method. The use of the 'Research Essay', for the intensive study of a narrow field with the resources of the library.

Library Period. A period for library instruction, and for work arising out of it. (N.B. *not* merely a period for free reading.)

Main Entry. Entry in the catalogue treated as the chief one, and normally containing the fullest particulars.

Non-book material. Matter other than books collected and kept in the library.

Oversize Books. Books taller than ten inches, and shelved separately.

Project. Work undertaken co-operatively by a class on a common theme.

Pseudonymous Books. Books written under an assumed name.

Remainders. New copies of books which have not found a market at their original published price, and which are offered for sale at a reduced price.

School Library Adviser. An officer appointed to advise generally on the provision of libraries in schools in an area.

'*See*' *References.* Entries in the catalogue referring from the subject-title not used to that used.

'*See also*' *References.* Entries in the catalogue referring from a subject entry to similar subjects which may be helpful to the reader.

Sheaf Catalogue. A catalogue in a special type of loose-leaf book.

Shelf Guide. A label indicating the class and subject beginning at the particular point on the shelf where it is placed.

Shelf-list. A list of the books in the order in which they appear on the shelves.

Subject Catalogue. A catalogue in which the entries are arranged in alphabetical order of the subjects listed.

Subject Library. A collection of books on a special subject, usually housed in a subject room.

Tier Guides. See *Bay Guides.*

Title Catalogue. A catalogue in which the entries are arranged in alphabetical order of the titles of the books.

Tracing. A note on the back of the main entry card, giving a list of all added entries made.

APPENDIX 3

A SELECT LIST OF BOOKS

THE following list of books is not exhaustive, but is designed to cover the more important sides of the school librarian's work. Books of an advanced type are marked (§); and those specially helpful to the beginner (*). A few books out of print have been included; these may often be bought second hand, or consulted in a public library. For a much longer list (annotated) the reader is referred to the new (3rd) edition of *A List of General Reference Books and A List of Books on Librarianship and Library Technique* (S.L.A. 1954). The numbers preceding the titles are those of the corresponding entries in that list.

GENERAL

159 * MCCOLVIN, L. R. and REVIE, J. British libraries. Longmans, 1*s.* 1946.

162 SAYERS, W. C. B. A manual of children's libraries. Allen & Unwin, 1932. [Out of print.]

173 THORNTON, J. L. The chronology of librarianship: an introduction to the history of libraries and book-collecting. Grafton, 12*s.* 6*d.* 1941.

175 CLARK, J. M. The care of books. C.U.P., 1901. [Out of print.]

LIBRARY TECHNIQUE

(*A*) *ADMINISTRATION*

179 § BROWN, J. D. Manual of library economy. Grafton, 35*s.* 1949. 6th edition revised by W. C. B. Sayers. [Out of print. New edition in preparation.]

(*B*) *CLASSIFICATION*

180 * PHILLIPS, W. H. A primer of classification. 3rd edition. Association of Assistant Librarians, 8*s*. 6*d*. (7*s*. to members of L.A.). 1951.

182 SAYERS, W. C. B. Introduction to library classification. 9th edition, Grafton. 18*s*. 1954.

183 § SAYERS, W. C. B. A manual of classification for librarians and bibliographers. 2nd edition. Grafton, 35*s*. 1947 [New edition in preparation.]

(*C*) *CATALOGUING*

190 TAYLOR, M. S. Fundamentals of practical cataloguing. Allen & Unwin, 8*s*. 6*d*. 1948.

191 § SHARP, H. A. Cataloguing: a textbook for use in libraries. 4th edition. Grafton, 25*s*. 1948.

194 * ORMEROD, J. Style in card cataloguing. 3rd edition. Birmingham, Combridge, 2*s*. 3*d*. 1939.

195 FRICK, B. M. Sears' list of subject headings. New York, H. W. Wilson; Glasgow, W. and R. Holmes, 30*s*. 7th edition. 1954.

196 SHERRIE, H. and JONES, P. M. Short list of subject headings. Sydney (Australia) and London, Angus and Robertson, 35*s*. 1950.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

(*A*) *GENERAL*

198 ESDAILE, A. A student's manual of bibliography. 3rd edition. Allen & Unwin. Edited by Roy Stokes 18*s*. 1954.

199 § MCKERROW, R. B. Introduction to bibliography for literary students. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 25*s*. 1928.

201 BINNS, N. E. An introduction to historical bibliography. Association of Assistant Librarians, 25*s*. (20*s*. to members of L.A.) 1953.

203 * HARRISON, F. A book about books. Murray, 5*s*. 1943.

206 MCMURTRIE, D. C. The book: the story of printing and bookselling. 3rd edition. New York, O.U.P., 52*s*. 6*d*. 1943.

207 ALDIS, H. G. The printed book. 3rd edition. C.U.P., 10*s*. 6*d*. 1951.

209 DIRINGER, D. The hand-produced book. Hutchinson's Scientific and Technical Publication, 60*s*. 1953.

(*B*) *MODERN BOOK PRODUCTION*

214 * YOUNG, J. L. Books from the MS. to the bookseller. 3rd edition. Pitman, 7*s*. 6*d*. 1947.

217 TARR, J. C. Printing today. O.U.P., 9*s*. 6*d*. 1946.

(*C*) *BOOK ILLUSTRATION*

222 BLAND, D. The illustration of books. 2nd edition. Faber, 12*s*. 6*d*. 1954.

(*D*) *BOOKBINDING AND BOOK REPAIR*

228 COCKERELL, D. Some notes on bookbinding. O.U.P., 7*s*. 6*d*. 1929.

234 LEWIS, A. W. Basic bookbinding. Batsford, 12*s*. 6*d*. 1952.

(*E*) *PUBLISHING AND BOOKSELLING*

236 MUMBY, F. A. Publishing and bookselling. New edition. Cape, 28*s*. 1954.

BOOK SELECTION

(*A*) *CHOICE AND USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS*

242 MCCOLVIN, L. R. and COLLISON, R. L. W. Reference library stock: an informal guide. Grafton, 30*s*. 1952.

244 * MCCOLVIN, L. R. How to find out. 2nd edition. C.U.P. (for N.B.L.), 1947. [Out of print.]

245 MCCOLVIN, L. R. How to use books. 2nd edition. C.U.P. (for N.B.L.), 1947. [Out of print.]

(*B*) *CHILDREN'S BOOKS AND READING*

247 DARTON, F. J. H. Children's books in England: five centuries of social life. C.U.P. 1932. [Out of print.]

255 HAZARD, P. Books, children and men. Woodfield and Stanley, 24*s*. 1944. [Out of print.]

257 WHITE, D. N. About books for children. (N.Z. Library Association) O.U.P., 18*s*. 1946.

259 TREASE, G, Tales out of school. Heinemann, 5*s*. 1948.

261 JENKINSON, A. J. What do boys and girls read? 2nd edition with new appendix. Methuen, 8*s*. 6*d*. 1946.

262 SCOTT, W. J. Reading, film and radio tastes of high school boys and girls. (N.Z. Council for Educational Research.) O.U.P., 10*s*. 1947.

(*C*) *BOOK SELECTION*

272 HAINES, H. E. Living with books. 2nd edition. New York, Columbia U.P. and O.U.P., 40*s*. 1950.

281 SMITH, F. S. An English library. 4th edition. C.U.P. (for N.B.L.), 7*s*. 6*d*. 1950. [Out of print.]

282 SMITH, F. S. What shall I read next? a personal selection of twentieth century English books. C.U.P. (for N.B.L.), 10*s*. 6*d*. 1953.

286 S.L.A. Index and guide to book lists of value to school librarians. [In preparation, 1955.]

292 NIELD, J. A guide to the best historical novels and tales. 5th edition. Nicholson & Watson, 1929. [Out of print.]

(*D*) *BOOK LISTS FOR CHILDREN AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES*

289 S.L.A. List of twentieth-century fiction for ages sixteen to eighteen. [In preparation, 1955.]

295 LINES, K. Four to fourteen. C.U.P. (for N.B.L.), 7*s*. 6*d*. 1950. [Out of print. New edition in preparation,]

296 S.L.A. Eleven to fifteen. 2nd edition. 1953. 4*s.* limp, 5*s.* boards (2*s.* and 3*s.* to S.L.A. members).

297 L.A. Books for young people: (i) under eleven. 1952. [Out of print. New edition 1955.] (ii) eleven to thirteen plus. 1952. 7*s.* 6*d.* [(6*s.* to members of L.A.). 1954.] (iii) fourteen to seventeen plus. [In preparation.]

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

(*A*) *REPORTS*

314 MINISTRY OF EDUCATION. The school library. H.M.S.O., 2*s.* 1952.

316 S.L.A. Report on planning and equipment of secondary school libraries. [In preparation, 1955.]

317 S.L.A. School libraries to-day. 2*s.* 6*d.* (to S.L.A. members 1*s.* 6*d.*). 1950.

325 CARNEGIE UNITED KINGDOM TRUST. Libraries in secondary schools. Edinburgh, Constable, 1936. [Not on sale, but copies were sent to all grammar schools.]

321 SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT. Libraries, museums and art galleries. Edinburgh, H.M.S.O., 3*s.* 6*d.* 1951.

326 SCHOOL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION IN SCOTLAND. A report on secondary school libraries in Scotland in 1952. S.L.A., 1*s.* 1953.

327 FIPESO. Bulletin International No. 67, 1950. From General Secretary, 46 Moray Place, Edinburgh 3. 1*s.* 6*d.*

(*B*) *MANUALS*

330 GRIMSHAW, E. The teacher librarian. Leeds: Arnold, 10*s.* 6*d.* 1952.

331 RALPH, R. G. The library in education. Turnstile Press, 7*s.* 6*d.* 1949.

334 RANGANATHAN, S. R. School and college libraries. Madras L.A. (London, Blunt), 18*s.* 1942.

(C) *BOOKS AND LIBRARIES IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS*

ATKINSON, M. Junior school community. Longmans, 8*s.* 6*d.* 1949.

341 CUTFORTH, J. English in the primary school. 2nd edition, Blackwell, 10*s.* 6*d.* 1954.

GEOGRAPHICAL ASSOCIATION. Geography in the Primary school. 2nd edition, 2*s.* 3*d.* post free. 1953.

NORTH EASTERN JUNIOR SCHOOLS ASSOCIATION. Basic requirements of the junior school. U.L.P., 2*s.* 6*d.* 1949.

SARJEANT, F. I. From day to day in the infant school. Blackie, 8*s.* 6*d.* 1952.

This includes a number of valuable book lists.

322 S.L.A. Suggestions for primary school libraries. 1953. 10*d.*

A tentative approach: a Report is in preparation, to be published in 1955.

PERIODICALS

351 *Junior Bookshelf*, ed. H. J. B. Woodfield. 10*s.* 6*d.* a year. [6 issues.]

354 *School Librarian & School Library Review.* Organ of the S.L.A. edited by C. H. C. Osborne. 12*s.* 6*d.* a year post free (free to members of S.L.A.). [3 issues.]

MISCELLANEOUS

357 CORBETT, E. V. The illustrations collection: its formation, classification and exploitation. Grafton, 1941. [Out of print.]

* INGLES, M. and MCCAGUE, A. Teaching the use of books and libraries. New York. H. W. Wilson, $1.80 1940.

JACKSON, H. The anatomy of bibliomania. Faber, 31*s.* 6*d.* 1950.

359 MUIR, P. H. Book collecting. Cassell, 7*s.* 6*d.* 1949.

APPENDIX 4 REVISIONS TO TEXT, 1955

The bold figures in the left margin refer to pages in the text.

Surveys and Reports.

THESE furnish valuable information on recent developments in the school library movement. The general field has been surveyed in a number of reports and articles. The first and most complete was the survey of libraries in grammar schools carried out by a strong committee appointed by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust—the *Carnegie Report* of 1936. During the War a panel appointed by the School Library Association drew up a short report on secondary (i.e. grammar) school libraries in post-war reconstruction (the '*Draft Report*') in 1943. This was followed by a similar but fuller report drawn up jointly by the S.L.A. and the School Libraries Section of the Library Association ('*School Libraries in Post-War Reconstruction*') in 1945. This was published after the 1944 Education Act, and covered the problems of the 'new secondary schools' or Secondary Modern schools. This report was republished in 1950, with text unaltered but with an illuminating commentary by C. H. C. Osborne, as *School Libraries To-day*. Meanwhile a short but valuable report had been issued in 1947 by the London County Council Education Officers' Department—*Report on School Libraries*.

In 1950 a conference of representatives of teachers in grammar schools in many western Europe countries was held in Holland under the auspices of FIPESO. Discussion was based on a questionnaire previously circulated to organizations of secondary or 'grammar' school teachers in the countries concerned; and the answers to the questionnaire were printed in *Bulletin International no. 67*, a very valuable document, giving a picture of the state of library provision and use in the

countries represented. The present position in the U.S.A. is very fully covered in a special number of *Library Trends* (University of Illinois School of Library Science), vol. 1, no. 3, 1953. This also includes an article on the school library movement in England and Wales. A very thorough review of the position in Scotland (secondary schools) was undertaken in 1952 by the School Library Association in Scotland, with full statistics (*A Report on Secondary School Libraries in Scotland in 1952*).

From the public library angle a memorandum *Work with Young People* was published by the Library Association in 1945. A revision was printed in the *Library Association Record* for April 1951.

One of the best presentations of the 'philosophy' of the school library is to be found in the Ministry of Education's pamphlet No. 21: *The School Library: an approach to the problem of teaching the use and enjoyment of books, with notes on the essentials of a good school library* (1952).

14 *PRIMARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES*

THE NEED FOR primary school libraries is now fully recognized. The whole character of primary education as now understood is based on the initiative of the child, and calls for a wide and rich range of books to which he has constant access. How this is best to be met must depend very largely on the conditions prevailing in each school. It seems however that provision should include (a) at the infant stage, *book corners* in each classroom, where the child will find attractive books from which he may choose at will; all authorities stress the importance of a pleasurable introduction to books; (b) at the junior stage, *class-room libraries*, comprising perhaps (i) some essential simple reference books, (ii) a collection of other books covering many fields of interest, both of an 'in-school' and of an 'out-of-school' type, and including some fiction, (iii) a loan collection, changed as frequently as may be desired, to provide greater variety of reading, or to meet some special need (e.g.

a project); to prevent, also, the small classroom library from going 'dead'. Finally (c) a *general library* or central collection, which can both act as a library in its own right, and also feed the classroom libraries with the loans referred to above. What form the general library will take, and how and where it will be housed, are questions which must be decided according to the needs and circumstances of each school. Its value for the older children will be much enhanced if it is housed together in a space or room of its own where it can be easily consulted, and where children can sit and read quietly. *But such a general library must never be regarded as an alternative to classroom libraries, which all informed opinion holds as essential at this stage.*

The case for primary school libraries outlined above is based entirely on the needs of the primary school itself; but it will at the same time be realized how valuable a preparation this provision will offer for sound work at the secondary stage.

The whole question was considered in outline at a conference held in 1952. An account of the discussion was printed as *Suggestions for Primary School Libraries* (S.L.A. 1953). The Primary Schools subcommittee is at present preparing a report.

15 Reference should be made to the interesting treatment of this question in the Ministry of Education's *Building Bulletin 2* (*New Secondary Schools*) 1950 (supplement 1951). See also H. R. Mainwood's review in *School Librarian*, vol. V, no. 3 (December 1950).

A report on Planning and Equipment is in preparation (S.L.A. 1955).

25 On problems of administration from the special point of view of Secondary Modern Schools, see S.L.A. Leaflets Nos. 4–7; on administration in Primary Schools, see forthcoming Report.

27 *A List of General Reference Books suitable for School Libraries (4th edition) and a List of Books on Librarianship and Library Technique of interest to School Librarians (3rd edition) 1954.*

31 It should be added that a good bookshop is a most valuable cultural influence in a community.

32 The following are valuable for information on current publications: *British National Bibliography*. On account of its cost (£8 to £20 a year) few school libraries will be able to buy it, but it can be seen in most public libraries. *British Book News* (monthly, 2*s*. a number, N.B.L. and Longmans for the British Council) is a useful annotated selective list. *Books of the Month* gives details of publisher, etc., and price (Simpkin Marshall).

32 (foot) *Books for Youth* is now replaced by *Books for Young People* in three parts. Woodfield and Stanley publish *Books for Young Readers* in two parts. A third edition is in preparation.

33 *Four to Fourteen* (1950), new edition.

37 For more recent editions see bibliography. Unfortunately M. S. Taylor's book is out of print.

41 The 'Standard' (15th) edition is completely reset. It is more balanced than earlier editions. Price £7 15*s*. The abridged edition (7th edition 1953) costs £2 5*s*.

44 All four volumes have now appeared (completed in 1953); but the cost is nearly £17. It is a great pity that an abridgement for the use of school and other small libraries has not appeared. My opinion of the scholarly nature of the classification, and of its complete suitability for school libraries, is unchanged.

45 The Cheltenham scheme is now out of print.

67 Now: B. M. Frick: *Sears' List of Subject Headings*, 7th edition, 1954. On a smaller scale, but adequate for most school libraries, is H. Sherrie and P. M. Jones: *Short List of Subject Headings*; see Appendix 3, no. 196.

83 I should now prefer to bring a book, when checked, forward (upright) to the edge of the shelf, instead of turning it fore-edge down. This saves the necessity of turning all the books back at the end of the check and avoids some wear on the corner of the book.

87 The cost is now about 5*s.* upwards.

92–96 *Finance.* All figures based on 1939 prices are now valueless. A rough basis of comparison would be to double (or more than double) the 1938 figures. For instance, the price of Chambers' Encyclopaedia in 1938 was £10; the present edition—about twice the size of the last—costs £52 10*s.* The 1,600 books suggested as basic stock for a grammar school in the 1943 Draft Report would now cost more than £1,000. Similarly the annual grant on the basis given in the text would now be something like £300.

102 This film is no longer available. There are some useful film-strips on the story of books and printing: see the current catalogues of the Educational Foundation for Visual Aids.

109 *The School Looks Around*—E. Layton & J. B. White. Longmans, 1948.

113 See also R. G. Ralph, *The Library in Education* (1949), and E. Grimshaw, *The Teacher Librarian* (1952).

116 Training of Teacher Librarians. The Ministry courses were resumed in 1947, and have been held annually since then except for 1953. They are now open to teachers from all types of school, and not only from grammar schools, and last ten days. A more extended course of a term has been available at Homerton College, Cambridge, but Education Authorities have found it difficult to grant serving teachers leave of absence.

Many Training Colleges are calling the attention of their students to the value of the school library in education, and

in the teaching of their own subjects; but it is generally recognized that the Training College syllabus is too full to permit of the training of students as school librarians. Besides it is felt on general educational grounds that this training will be far more valuable if it is deferred until the teacher has had some experience as a teacher, and that a course of at least three months, or its equivalent spread over a longer period (e.g. in evening classes), is needed; that such a course should include as fields of study (a) the study of children and books, (b) the general principles of school library administration as an element in school organization, (c) the technical processes of librarianship necessary for its efficient functioning, (d) the use of the library in the work and life of the school. Furthermore, training should involve practical work in a school. There still remains the problem of providing the right kinds of course and of enabling teacher librarians to take them when they are established. Some tentative discussion has already taken place about the nature of a certificate or other award of competence, and the conditions on which it should be granted.

116 foot. Reprinted, with foreword by W. O. Lester Smith and commentary by C. H. C. Osborne, as *School Libraries To-day* (1950).

126 Several County Libraries have appointed School Library Advisers.

127 In *School Libraries To-day*.

Index

Accession Book, 34, 74, 75, 87
Accession number, 35
Accessioning, 33–36, 118
Added entry, 66
Advanced courses, 99
Alcoves, 19
Analytical entries, 35
Anglo-American Code, 63, 70
Anonymous books, 64, 65
Archives, 114, 117, 120
Assistant librarian, 118, 119
Atlases, 20
Audio-visual material, 117
Author catalogue, 62, 64–66, 70, 71, 74

Basic stock, 25, 26
Bay, 20
Bay guides, 56, 57
Bible, 66
Bibliography, 134–139
Binding, 34, 84–87, 93, 144
Biography, 53
Bliss (*Bibliographical Classification*) 43–45, 60–62, 143
Book corners, 141
Book display, 23, 192
Book exhibitions, 31
Book-pockets, 36, 77–81
Book repair, 86, 121
Book selection, 25–33, 119, 120, 124, 125
Book supports, 24
Book truck, 24
Books of the Month, 143
Booksellers, 31, 143
Borrowers' register, 77–79
British Book News, 143
British National Bibliography, 143
Broken order, 41
Brown's Subject Classification, 46
Browsing, 100, 101, 113
Bulletin board, 24

Call Symbol, 73, 131
Carnegie Report, 16, 19, 26, 93, 95, 96, 140
Cased books, 84
Catalogue cabinet, 22
Catalogue cards, 22, 71
Catalogue entries, 63–74
Cataloguing, 62–76, 98, 117, 118
Censorship, 28
Centralized cataloguing, 118
Chairs, 21
Changed names, 64, 65
Chapter and Verse (*film*), 102, 144
Charging desk, 22
Charging systems, 76–82
Cheltenham Classification, 45, 46, 143
Class guides, 56
Class libraries, 11
Class library monitors, 120, 121
Class numbers, 35, 39, 63
Class-room libraries, 141
Classification, 36–62, 98, 101, 117, 118
Classified catalogue, 62, 68, 70, 74, 76
Collation, (a), 34; (b), 63, 64
Colon Classification, 46
Committee, 119
Common Subdivisions (*Dewey*), 39, 59, 60
Concentric Method, 102, 103, 110
Conference room, 14
Co-operative Essays, 105–109, 111–113

Country Libraries, 122–124
Cupboards, 21
Cuttings, 55, 91, 117, 120

Date-slip, 36, 82
Defective books, 34
Departmental libraries, 11–13
Description, 63
Dewey (Decimal Classification), 35, 38–42, 57–60, 69, 143
Dictionary catalogue, 68
Discarding, 29
Draft report (S.L.A.), 16, 26, 93, 95, 96, 140, 144

Entries (catalogue), 63–73
Equipment, 19–24, 92
Essays, 105–113
Ex libris books, 33, 96
Exhibitions, 92, 114, 115, 117

Fiction, 26, 54, 55
Filing, 81
Finance, 89, 92–96, 144
Fines, 94
FIPESO Conference, 140
Form (classification), 48
Form libraries, 11
Form library monitors, 120, 121
Furniture, 19–24, 92

General Reference, 27, 36, 53, 55
Gifts, 94
Grant, 93, 95
Guide cards, 74

Heading, 63–67
Home reading, 113–114

Imprint, 63
Island cases, 19
Issue of Books, see Charging Systems

Joint report (L.A. and S.L.A.), 126, 137
Junior libraries, 13, 14

Librarian, 115–118
Librarian's table, 22
Library block, 14
Library helpers, 91, 120
Library method, 99, 104, 110–113, 117, 129
Library of Congress Classification, 46
Library period, 98–100, 113, 126
Library prefects, 91, 120
Library training, 96–113
Library Trends, 141
Lighting, 18
Local Education Authorities, 31, 126
Local surveys, 108, 109
Location, 63, 64

Maps, 117
Ministry of Education, 18, 116, 118, 141, 142, 144
Missing books, 84, 119
Municipal Libraries, 122–124

National Book League, 31, 33, 102
National Central Library, 125
Newspaper rack, 23, 89
Newspaper stand, 23, 89
Newspapers, 88–91, 93, 98, 120
Notice board, 24

Open access, 20
Ordering, 33
Oversize books, 20, 54

Pamphlet case, 23, 54, 87
Pamphlets, 54, 87
Pensions, 118
Periodical covers, 23, 90
Periodical stand, 22, 23
Periodicals, 88–91, 93, 120
Personal study, 109
Pictures, 55, 91, 114, 115, 117, 120
Portfolios, 13, 90
Prefixes, 65
Primary Schools, 141, 142
Projects, 28, 106–109, 125, 126

Prong file, 23, 89
Pseudonymous books, 64, 65
Public library, 30, 46, 47, 96, 97, 110, 117, 120–127
Pupils, 30, 118, 120, 121

Quick reference books, see General Reference

Reader's ticket, 77–79
Reading diaries, 110
Reading room, 14
Recent accessions shelf, 36
Reinforced binding, 34, 85
Remainders, 33
Repairing, 86, 121
Reserved books, 54, 82
Returned book shelf, 82
Reviews, 32
Rules, 91, 119

School librarianship: training, 116, 118
School librarian, 115–118
School library adviser, 125–126, 145
School library as a unit, 11–13
  in classrooms, 24
  library block, 14, 15
  planning (internal), 18, 19
  position in school buildings, 15
  size, 15–18
School Library Association, 129, 130
School Library Association in Scotland, 141
School societies, 30, 114, 117
'See' references, 67, 69
'See also' references, 67, 69
Sheaf catalogue, 74, 76
Shelf guides, 56, 57, 121
Shelf-list, 57, 75, 76, 83
Shelving, 18–20
Staff, 30, 104, 108, 110, 112, 119, 120
Stockroom, 14
Stocktaking, 76, 82–84, 86, 120, 144
Stylus, 35
Subject catalogue, 62, 66, 67, 69, 70, 74
Subject libraries, 11–13
Surveys and Reports, 140, 141
Systematic schedules (Bliss), 44, 61, 62

Tables, 21
Teachers' Superannuation Act, (1945), 118
Teaching of judgment, 103–105
Tier guides, 56
Title catalogue, 63
Titles, 64
Tonks' adjustable fitting, 20
Tracings, 73, 75
Training, 144, 145
Training Colleges, 144, 145

Universal Decimal Classification, 40

Vertical file, 23, 114, 115

Work room, 14
Work with Young People (*L.A.*), 141

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c Council, consisting of the Committee of the Association, together with representatives of all Branches, and meeting at the time of the Annual General Meeting for interchange of views on Branch and local affairs.

d 'The School Librarian & School Library Review', the organ of the Association, published once a term.

e Various Publications, including book lists, reports on special topics, leaflets giving guidance for beginners.

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